

Language Teaching

From Method to Post–method

Researcher's Sourcebook

Dr. Abdelrahman M. Yeddi Elnoor

Language Teaching
From Method to Post-method
Researcher's Sourcebook

Dr. Abdelrahman M. Yeddi Elnoor

Copyright © Dr. Abdelrahman M. Yeddi Elnoor: 2019
© No.: IP, 233/2019 (Copyright Office-IPD, Doha-Qatar)
© No.: L-116968/2022 (Copyright Office- Gov. of India)

First edition: 2019
Sith revised edition: 2025

All rights reserved. No part of this publication may be reproduced,
stored in a retrieval system, or transmitted in any means,
electronic, photocopying, recording or otherwise, without the prior
permission of the copyright holder.

Dedicated To
**Those who Dedicate themselves for
Spreading Valuable Knowledge**

Abbreviations

GTM	Grammar-Translation Method
DM	Direct Method
SA	Situational Approach
OA	Oral Approach
SLT	Situational Language Teaching
SM	Substitution Method
RM	Reading Method
StA	Structural Approach
S-O-S	Structural-Oral-Situational Approach
BM	Bilingual Method
ALM	Audiolingual Method
CLL	Community Language Learning
TPR	Total Physical Response
WLA	Whole Language Approach
CcA	Cognitive-code Approach
SWM	Silent Way Method
CLT	Communicative Language Teaching
CA	Communicative Approach
CC	Communicative Competence
NA	Natural Approach
CbA	Content-based Approach
CbI	Content-Based Instruction
TbA	Task-based Approach

TbLT	Task-based Language Teaching
ESP	English for Specific Purposes
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EA	Eclectic Approach
PmC	Post-method Condition
TESOL	Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages
PP	Principled Pragmatism
PE	Principled Eclecticism
V/BbLA	Video/Book-based Learning Approach

Contents

	P. No.
Acknowledgment	xvii
Approaches and Methods	1
Definition of Approach, Method and Procedure	1
The Concept of Method and Methodology	4
Early Experiences in Teaching/Learning a Language	5
Chronology of Approaches and Methods	7
Explicit and Implicit Language Learning	8
Grammar-Translation Method	11
Exponents of GTM	12
Aims of GTM	14
Assumptions of GTM	14
Principles of GTM	15
Features of GTM	16
Characteristics of GTM	18
Teaching Procedures and Techniques in GTM	22
- Teaching Grammar	24
- Teaching Vocabulary	26
- Teaching Reading	27
- Teaching Translation	28
- Teaching Writing	29
Merits of GTM	29
Demerits of GTM	33
The Direct Method	43
Definition	43
Background	43

DM and the Culture of the Target Language	49
DM and the Target Language Grammar	50
Aims of the Direct Method	51
Assumptions of the Direct Method	53
Principles of the Direct Method	55
Features of the Direct Method	58
Characteristics of the Direct Method	59
Teaching Procedures and Practices of DM	62
Merits of the Direct Method	65
Demerits of the Direct Method	66
The Situational Approach	73
Assumptions of the Situational Approach	75
Features of the Situational Approach	77
Characteristics of the Situational Approach	79
Teaching Techniques of the Situational Approach	81
- Attention and Interest of the Learners	82
- Teacher's Resourcefulness, Creativity and Innovativeness	82
- The Action-chains	83
- Repetition and Revision	84
- Situational Use of Actions, Pictures and Objects	85
- Inductive Teaching of Grammar	86
- No Use of the Mother-tongue	87
- Pronunciation Drills	88
- Writing Derives from Speech	88
Merits of the Situational Approach	89
Demerits of the Situational approach	89

The Substitution Method	92
Definition of the Substitution Method	92
Assumptions and Procedures of SM	93
Merits of the Substitution Method	95
Demerits of the Substitution Method	97
Dr. West's New Method	98
Assumptions of the Reading Method	100
Features of the Reading Method	102
Merits of the Reading Method	103
Demerits of the Reading Method	105
The Structural Approach	109
Meaning of the Structural Approach	109
Objectives of the Structural Approach	111
Assumptions of the Structural Approach	112
Principles of the Structural Approach	115
Features of the Structural Approach	118
Characteristics of the Structural Approach	120
Steps of the Structural Approach	121
Merits of the Structural Approach	123
Demerits of the Structural Approach	124
The Structural-Oral-Situational Approach (S-O-S)	127
The Theory Underlying S-O-S Approach	128
Merits of the S-O-S Approach	129
Demerits of the S-O-S Approach	130
The Bilingual Method	133
Aims of the Bilingual Method	137
Assumptions of the Bilingual Method	137

Principles of the Bilingual Method	138
Characteristics of the Bilingual Method	138
Teaching Material and Procedures of the BM	140
Merits of the Bilingual Method	142
Demerits of the Bilingual Method	146
The Oral-Aural or Audiolingual Method	147
The Audiolingualism and its Theoretical Roots	150
Linguistic and Behaviorist Influence on the ALM	151
ALM and Teaching of Target Language Culture	156
Assumptions and Principles of the Audiolingualism	156
Objectives of the Audio-Lingual Method	160
Features of and Characteristics the Audiolingualism	161
Teaching Material and Techniques of the ALM	164
Merits of the ALM	171
Demerits of the ALM	172
Community Language Learning	178
Introduction to Community Language Learning	178
Humanistic Nature of CLL	179
Psycholinguistic Philosophy of CLL	180
Paul, G. La Forge and the Social Process Model	183
Assumptions of CLL	185
Objectives of CLL	189
Principles of CLL	191
Features of CLL	195
Characteristics of CLL	196
Curran's 'Consensual Validation' or	

‘Convalidation’	198
Stages of Learning in CLL	201
Material in CLL	206
Teacher’s Role in CLL	209
Learners’ Role in CLL	214
Role of Mother Tongue in CLL	216
Teaching Techniques and Procedures in CLL	217
- Translation	223
- Group Work	224
- Recording	224
- Transcription	224
- Analysis	224
- Reflection and Observation	224
- Listening	224
- Free conversation	225
Merits of CLL	225
Demerits of CLL	226
Suggestopedia	228
Assumptions of Suggestopedia Method	230
Characteristics of Suggestopedia Method	233
Aims of Suggestopedia Method	234
Features of Suggestopedia Method	234
Techniques and Material in Suggestopedia	235
Merits of Suggestopedia Method	238
Demerits of Suggestopedia Method	239
Total Physical Response	241
Background	241
Theoretical Framework of TPR	242

Assumptions of TPR Method	244
Principles of TPR Method	252
Features and Characteristics of TPR Method	256
Objectives of TPR Method	260
Material and Techniques of TPR Method	262
Merits of TPR Method	269
Demerits of TPR Method	272
Whole Language Approach	275
Origin of Whole Language Approach	275
Definition of WLA	276
A Theoretical Approach of Integrating Skills	278
Assumptions of WLA	283
Features of WLA	285
Material of WLA	286
WLA is Attractive for Adults Learners	288
Teacher's Role in WLA	289
WLA is Learner-centered Approach	291
Merits of WLA	294
Demerits of WLA	296
The Cognitive Approach or Cognitive-code Learning Theory	298
Historical Background	298
TGG and Cognitive-code Approach	300
Theoretical Background	302
Aims, Concepts and Assumptions of CcA	308
Features of Cognitive-code Learning	315
Teacher's/Learner's Role in CcA	318
Advantages of CcA	324

Disadvantages of CcA	327
The Silent Way Method	331
Background	331
Assumptions of the SWM	332
Features of the SWM	337
Objectives of the SWM	339
Teaching Material of SWM	340
Techniques in the SWM Classroom	343
Teacher's Task in SWM	343
Learners' Task in SWM	346
Merits of SWM	347
Demerits of SWM	347
Communicative Language Teaching or The Communicative Approach	350
Failure of Approaches and Methods	350
Definition of CA	353
Theoretical Origin of CLT	354
CC: Concept and Definition	362
Dimensions of the Communicative Competence	364
CC vis-a-vis Grammatical Competence	367
Assumptions of CLT	371
Objectives of the CLT	372
Principles of the CA	373
Characteristics of the CA	374
Features of CLT	376
Syllabus/Material in CLT	379
Teachers' Role in CLT	383
Learners' Role in in CLT	385

Legacy of the CLT	388
Merits of CA	390
Demerits of CA	391
The Natural Approach	393
Introduction	393
Theoretical Bases of the NA	395
- The Acquisition or Learning Hypothesis	399
- The Monitor Hypothesis	401
- The Natural Order Hypothesis	402
- The Input Hypothesis	402
- The Affective Filter Hypothesis	404
The NA and the Comprehensible Input	405
Assumptions and Principles of the NA	406
Features of the NA	408
Objectives of the NA	409
Material of the NA	411
Techniques and Procedures of the NA	412
The NA vis-a-vis Methods and Approaches	417
Merits of the NA	421
Demerits of the NA	421
Content-based Approach	426
Background	426
Definition of CbA	427
Assumptions and Principles of CbA	428
Material of CbA	431
Versions of Content-based Course	434
The CbA Classroom	435
Merits of the CbA	441

Demerits of the CbA	443
Task-based Approach	445
Introduction	445
Definition of Task	446
Definition of the TbA	447
Definition of Pedagogical Task	448
Aims of the TbA	450
Characteristics of the TbA	453
Principles of the TbA	454
- Scaffolding	454
- Task dependency	455
- Recycling	455
- Active Learning	455
- Integration	456
- Reproduction to Creation	456
- Reflection	457
- Copying to Creation	457
Meaning-focused Activity in TbA	457
Form-based Work in TbA	458
Material in the TbA and its Aims	460
Teaching/Learning Techniques in the TbA	464
- Pre-task	469
- Task-cycle	470
- Language-focus	470
- The Task	471
- Planning	472
- Report	472
- Post-task Practice	473

Types of Tasks	473
Rule-focused Activity	473
Form-focused Activity	473
Meaningful Activity	474
Meaning-focused Activity	474
Advantages of the TbA	475
Disadvantages of the TbA	481
Conclusion	488
Eclectic Approach or Compromise Method	490
Introduction	490
Definitions/Meaning of the EA	494
Objectives of the EA	495
Features of the EA	496
Principles of the EA	497
Characteristics of the EA	499
Material and Teaching Procedures in the EA	499
Teacher's Role in the EA	502
Learner's Role in the EA	503
Advantages of the EA	504
Disadvantages of the EA	507
Post-method Condition	512
Background	512
Why Did Teachers Follow Methods Blindly?	517
Harsh Criticism against Methods	518
A Call for Contextualization of Pedagogy	527
The Arrival of PmC	531
The Concept of Post-method	533
Post-method Pedagogy	535

PP as against PE	539
Post-method Strategic Framework	540
Macrostrategies and Microstrategies	543
- The Pedagogic Parameters	544
- The Principle of Particularity	545
- The Principle of Practicality	547
- The Principle of Possibility	548
Prabhu's Sense of Plausibility	550
Reflective Practice	553
Components of Reflection	555
Stern's Three-dimensional Framework	558
The Intralingual-crosslingual Dimension	558
The Analytic-experiential Dimension	559
The Explicit-implicit Dimension	561
Allwright's Exploratory Practice	563
Method or Post-method? That is the Question!	567
Video/Book-based Learning Approach	576
Introduction	576
Video/Book-based Learning Approach	581
Assumptions of Video/Book-based Learning	584
Aims of V/BbLA	589
Characteristics of V/BbLA	592
Material of V/BbLA	597
Learning Techniques in V/BbLA	599
Merits of V/BbLA	601
Bibliography	607

*In the name of Allah, the Most Gracious and the most Merciful
And PBU the Prophet and his Progeny*

Acknowledgment

Allah's will (be done)! There is no power But with Allah, the Almighty, Praise be to Allah, the Cherisher and the Sustainer of the Worlds, and PBU the Prophet Mohammed and his progeny.

Dear reader, in spite of the availability of a lot of specialized resources about language teaching approaches and methods, in the form of hardcopies and soft copies, still the ordinary researchers, educators, teachers and students suffer from the problems of how to handle those resources and extract what serves their purpose scientifically, neatly and quickly. Therefore, I would like to provide researchers, educators, teachers and students with this well-organized book in the field of approaches and methods of language teaching. It handles, in a very systematic manner, the history of approaches and methods of teaching language till the post-method period by referring to many specialized works such as dissertations, books, articles and papers in their hard and soft copies and presenting the teaching approaches and methods neatly and clearly. It offers a well-documented material for researchers, educators, teachers and students who will find abundant primary and secondary resources whether they want to accomplish general studying, teaching, training or conducting researches in the field of ELT. The book provides practitioners with valuable and brain-storming

material which would be a right hand for them to get qualified by going through the bright thoughts and theories of specialized scholars in the field of teaching approaches, methods and post-method. It is also an attempt to give educational libraries a reference which they need very much.

As the book is specifically written for researchers, I was always keen on observing the proper and careful documentation of the quotations taken from various resources so that the researcher, who writes about methods and approaches; whether what he/she writes was just a chapter in his/her research or an exhaustive study, would find what serves his/her purpose within a single book. Therefore, this book contains documentation of the sayings of the specialists who gave theorizing opinions about methods, approaches and post-method period. It is hoped that it may contribute to cover the shortage of organized resources in this field. I hope that what I have done may help readers to possess better and organized insight into the teaching methods, approaches and post-method period. I'm very much indebted to the innumerable material which have been of valuable help to me in composing this book. Acknowledgement is made in the book of material quoted or cited wherever necessary and possible. If anything fell out of this sincere effort of documentation, I fully acknowledge, apologize and promise to document it in the next editions. Moreover, I am solely responsible for the errors and imperfections that still remain in the book.

Nevertheless, this book does not make any claim to be

an exhaustive and learned treatise on teaching methods, approaches and post-method period. It doesn't make the author pretend to have a direct and first-hand knowledge of teaching methods and approaches and post-method period or claim to cover their aspects exhaustively. In fact, I did not handle many methods as I considered them to be minor and do not possess an influential position among other methods.

However, after I had presented various approaches, methods and post-method period, I have introduced my own approach of learning a foreign language which is titled 'Video/Book-based Learning Approach'. Through it, I tried to present my own teaching experience throughout the last thirty years.

Finally, I say: *"My Lord! Grant me the power and ability that I may be grateful for Your favour which You have bestowed upon me and upon my parents, and that I may do righteous good deeds that will please You, and make my offspring good Truly, I am one of the Muslims (submitting to Your will)"*[46:15]

Peace be upon the Prophet Mohammed and his purged Progeny

Dr. Abdelrahman M. Yeddi Elnoor

2019

Approaches and Methods

Throughout the history of language teaching, practitioners and theorists always searched for more effective ways to teach languages. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), language teaching came into its own as a profession in the twentieth century. However, the whole methodological foundation of what is going on now in the name of language teaching has been evolving since many centuries. In other words, throughout many centuries, language teaching has been undergoing continuous development and changes of methods and approaches.

Definition of Approach, Method and Procedure

According to Edward, Anthony (1963); an American applied linguist, "...An approach is a set of correlative assumptions dealing with the nature of language (i.e. linguistic) and the nature of language teaching and learning; it describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught; it is more theoretical and forms the basis of any method to be formulated; an approach is axiomatic. It describes the nature of the subject matter to be taught..." Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), on her part viewed an approach as "the philosophic basis for a particular system or method of language introduction."

As far as the word ‘method’ is concerned, it has its roots in the Greek word ‘methodos’, which encapsulates the “idea of a series of steps leading towards a conceived goal.” Routledge Encyclopedia of Language Teaching and Learning (2000), defines Method as “a planned way of doing something.” Edward, Anthony (1963), says that “... Method is an overall plan for the orderly presentation of language material, no part of which contradicts, and all of which is based upon, the selected approach. An approach is axiomatic, a method is procedural. Within one approach, there can be many methods...” According to Brown, H. D. (2002), “a method is a set of theoretically unified classroom techniques thought to be generalizable across a wide variety of contexts and audiences.” Prabhu, N. S. (1990), on the other hand, uses the term ‘method’ to refer “both to a set of activities to be carried out in the classroom and to the theory, belief, or plausible concept that informs those activities” Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), defines method as “a single set of theoretical principles derived from feeder disciplines and a single set of classroom procedures directed at classroom teachers.” Richards, J. C. and Schmidt, R. W. (2002), explain that Methods are the results of various understandings of the nature of language, foreign language learning, of the different students’ learning goals and objectives, types of curriculum, roles of teachers and students, materials, activities, techniques and procedures used. Nunan, D. (2003), refers to method as “a set of guidelines that describes how the

language should be taught.” Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), consider that method is an umbrella term to capture redefined approaches, design, and procedures.

It is important to remember that Methods reflect themselves in the syllabus, the design of materials and classroom strategy, procedures and techniques. Nunan, D. (2003), speaks about “a unique set of procedures” that teachers follow in the classroom, based on a “set of beliefs about the nature of language and learning.” According to Edward, Anthony (1963), “... A technique is implementational - that which actually takes place in a classroom. It is a particular trick, strategem, or contrivance used to accomplish an immediate objective. Techniques must be consistent with a method, and therefore in harmony with an approach as well.”

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), say “We see approach and method treated at the level of design, that level in which objectives, syllabus, and content are determined, and in which the roles of teachers, learners, and instructional materials are specified. The implementation phase (the level of technique in Anthony’s model) we refer to by the slightly more comprehensive term procedure. Thus, a method is theoretically related to an approach, is organizationally determined by a design, and is practically realized in procedure.” They add: “The first level, approach, defines those assumptions, beliefs, and theories about the nature of language and the nature of language learning which

operate as axiomatic constructs or reference points and provide a theoretical foundation for what language teachers ultimately do with learners in classrooms. The second level in the system, design, specifies the relationship of theories of language and learning to both the form and function of instructional materials and activities in instructional settings. The third level, procedure, comprises the classroom techniques and practices which are consequences of particular approaches and designs.”

The Concept of Method and Methodology

According to Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), “Many of us in language teaching profession used the term, method, so much and so often that we seldom recognize its problematic nature. For instance, we are hardly aware of the fact that we use the same term, method, to refer to two different elements of language teaching: method as proposed by theorists, and method as proposed by teachers. What the teachers do in the classroom is different from what is advocated by theorists.”

What Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. call ‘method’ is more comfortably referred to as ‘methodology’ by Brown, H. D. (1987), in order to avoid confusion. Richards, J. C. and Schmidt, R. W. (2002), defines methodology (in language teaching) as the study of the practices and procedures used in teaching, and the

principles and beliefs that underlie them. To distinguish between methodology and method Brown, H. D. (2007), suggests that “Methods are typically top-down impositions of experts’ views of teaching” whereas methodology is the particular way of teaching that every teacher puts into practice.

Early Experiences in Teaching/Learning a Language

The interest in learning another language started long time back in the human history. Life necessities and many other factors made human beings learn the language of each other. For example, the Romans wanted to study Greek. To accomplish this task, they employed Greek teachers and Greek speaking servants and maids in their houses so as to learn Greek by hearing it from the native speakers themselves at home.

Similarly, when the Roman Empire expanded its territories to different directions, many people started learning Latin because it became the medium of communication among people of different territories. Consequently, both Latin and Greek became important languages as they were considered the means to learn ancient thoughts, literature and other intellectual gains of Latin-Greek times.

In that learning process and activity, grammar of the target language was occupying an important position. In fact, in order to read and write Latin, the learner was made to undergo through intensive study of the formal

aspects of the target language so as to know that it is a rule-language which is different from its spoken form. Therefore, textbooks were full of grammatical rules that were considered the correct forms which must be learnt by the learner through intensive oral and written drills of Latin grammar. According to Mackey, W. F. (1965), “the teaching methods at that time were confined to Latin grammar which were based on oral practice, reading and writing in the second language.” Thus, since the main target of learning was the grammar of the target language, it is very clear that the aims of teaching Latin were not to make the learner able to speak the language, but to develop the intellectual skills in its mechanic aspects so as to attain an educational and prestigious end; namely, further developing the skill to read and comprehend original texts in Latin and fostering the logical thinking skill in the learner.

Strangely, in spite of the domination of the formal aspects of the target language in the process of teaching/learning, some learners found ways of learning it without adhering to that formal method of learning which has been devised for them; namely, mastering the mechanical aspects of the target language. An example of such learners was Michel, De Montaign. Speaking about him, Mackey, W. F. (1965), said that Michel, De Montaign “learnt Latin without rules because his father made him speak to him in Latin all the time.” Hence, instead of compensating himself for the absence of

spoken form of the language in the society and concentrating on the grammar of the target language and its translation, his father provided him an environment of exposure to, and practice of, the target language. Consequently, he learned Latin without resorting to its grammar or indulging in translation. In fact, he was an exceptional case in the learning tradition of his time.

Giving further historical details about the way Michel, De Montaign learned Latin, Mackey, W. F. (1965), goes on to say that later, when he was a student in the school, Michel, De Montaign started learning rules of grammar and was able also to speak the language fluently. He mastered the spoken Latin more than learning its standard forms. Such an exceptional experiment in the way of learning foretold the later development of 'Communicative' theories in the field of teaching approaches and methods. It predicted the wide gap that exists between the practices of the old methods and the trends of the modern methods and theorizing about the process of learning the target language. This gap gave rise to a lot of theorizations about methods and approaches in the field language learning throughout many centuries and consequently many methods and approaches came into existence.

Chronology of Approaches and Methods

The teaching methods and approaches which displayed their importance during different stages of history may be chronologized as follows:

1. 1830-1880: Grammar-Translation Method.
2. 1880-1920: Reform/Direct method phonetics.
3. 1920-1940: Compromise method.
4. 1940-1950: Linguistic approach to language teaching
American Army method Intensive Language teaching.
5. 1950-1960: Audio Lingual (USA) and audio visual
(France/Britain) methods Language laboratory Psycholinguistics.
6. 1960-1970: Audio-lingual habit theory Vs Cognitive-code Learning impact of Chomsky's theory Sociolinguistics; Method research; Method analysis.
7. 1970-1980: Communicative approach and related methods and approaches.
8. 1980-1990: Eclectic Approach.
9. Break way from method concept

However, there are many methods which appeared in between the above approaches and methods which shifted between explicit or implicit teaching/learning of the mechanical aspects of the language.

Explicit and Implicit Language Learning

The 20th. century have been full of debate over the question whether explicit teaching of grammar of the target language helps the learners gain proficiency in the target language or just sufficing by teaching the grammar implicitly and making grammar learning a by-product of mastering its communicative aspects. In fact, the shift from one method or approach to another method

or approach has been instigated, mainly, by the controversy about whether to follow explicit or implicit teaching of the formal aspect of the target language. It can be said that in the 20th century, there were two trends which were being followed in different areas interchangeably as Sabri, Koc (2011), observes in his article 'Language Teaching Approaches: An Overview': "Prior to this century, language teaching methodology vacillated between two types of approaches: one type of approach which focused on using a language (i.e., speaking and understanding), the other type which focused on analyzing a language (i.e., learning the grammatical rules)."

In other words, there were two types of methods and approaches that have been dominating foreign/second language teaching/learning situations throughout the history. They represented either 'explicit' or 'implicit' language learning. The 'explicit' methods and approaches emphasized that the rules, forms and structures of a language should be taught directly to the learners of the target language. Thus, they stressed on teaching/learning the formal aspects of the target language. Whereas the 'implicit' language teaching asked the learner to derive the rules and structures for himself without receiving any explicit teaching. It means that the communicative trends of language teaching emerged from the womb of the trend that called for 'implicit' teaching/learning of the formal aspects of the target language. Thus, most of the modern

methods and approaches have stressed on concentrating on the communicative aspects of the target language and not on its formal aspects.

In the course of studying various methods and approaches, both, 'explicit' and 'implicit' language teaching/learning will be clear. Now, the following is a detailed survey of the various methods and approaches.

Grammar-Translation Method

Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) was used in teaching Latin and Greek languages over the centuries. It is difficult to trace back its exact origin and find complete and documented historical documents of its history because teaching of both translation and grammar has occurred in language instruction in different parts of Europe for many centuries. According to Mackey, W. F. (1965), GTM is “the oldest method that has been used in teaching foreign language.” In fact, the medieval scholastic linguistic activities produced the GTM which was the only teaching method for many centuries in Europe.

GTM was known also as the ‘classical method’ because it was used to teach classical literature and what can be called the ‘dead’ languages like Greek and Latin; the languages which were prevalent for many centuries in Europe. Howatt, A. P. R. (1984), pointed out that the Classical Method; GTM, was originally associated with the teaching of Greek and Latin languages. At then, Europe was living in the ages of darkness whereas these languages were associated with some centers of intelligence and learning. Therefore, they became a symbol of prestige and they were taught and learnt through GTM. Yardi, V. V. (1994), observes, “Latin became very popular

as the Roman Empire grew, and attained the status of an international language. It became the sole medium of instruction and remained so until after the middle ages. The emphasis in teaching Latin was, by and large, on formal grammar. This method grew out of this practice...”

Howatt, A. P. R. (1984), gives a detailed account of the factors that contributed to the origin of GTM. He claims: “The origins of the grammar-translation method do not lie in an attempt to teach languages by grammar and translation; these were taken for granted anyway. The original motivation was reformist ... The grammar-translation method was an attempt to adopt these traditions to circumstances and requirements of schools.”

Exponents of GTM

The main exponents of GTM were the German Scholars like Johann Seidenstucker, Karl Plotz, H.S. Ollendorf, and Johann Meidinger. As the names of the leading exponents suggest, GTM was, in fact, the offspring of German scholarship. It began in Germany, or more accurately, Prussia in the second half of the eighteenth century.

The earliest Grammar-Translation course was written in the year 1793 by Johann, Christian Fick (1763-1821), and it was published in Erlangen in South Germany. It was modeled on an earlier work for the teaching of French by the originator of the method Johann, Valentin Meidinger (1756-1822), as the full title of Fick’s book

shows; 'Practical English Course for Germans of Both Sexes' which was following the method of Meidinger's French Grammar. It established an almost impregnable position as the favored methodology of the Prussian Gymnasien (grammar schools) after their expansions in the early years of the nineteenth century. Therefore, in the United States of America, it was popularly known as Prussia.

Moreover, Poltz's method 'rule of paradigm' and sentence for translation into mother tongue were also adopted in Germany. Ollendorff, H. G. and Franz Ahn were the major successful practitioners of this method. Ollendorff designed the textbooks in a graded linguistic syllabus for the first time. He prepared language courses based on the combination of briefly presented grammatical rules and translation practice whereas Franz Ahn designed courses for German and then in English, Spanish, Italian and Russian languages. It seems that this method is clearly noted in the 'formal' and 'traditional' approaches which were dominant in Europe for a long time. Hence, GTM dominated the European and other foreign language teaching context for more than a century till the advent of structural linguistics. In other words, GTM was widely used in the late nineteenth century and the first half of the twentieth century. However, it can be said that GTM was one of the oldest or traditional methods of teaching/learning a language which was widely used during the nineteenth century and early

twentieth century.

Aims of GTM

According to Rouse, W. H. D. (1925), as quoted in Kelly, L. G. (1969), the aim of GTM was “to know everything about something rather than the thing itself.” Thus, the main aim of GTM, as the above quotation sarcastically indicates, was to teach the learners translation and the grammar of English language. It was a method in which translation and grammar equally dominated. In this regard, the learner’s mother tongue has a great position the process of teaching/learning the target language. In fact, the student’s mother tongue was used to explain new items and consequently it became the medium of instruction. Its goal was also to develop learners’ ability to read and appreciate the literature of the target language. Rivers, W. M. (1970), states that the GTM trained learners to “extract the meaning from foreign texts by translation into the native language.” Thus, GTM made learners value and appreciate what they have been reading.

Assumptions of GTM

GTM, according to Pahuja, N. P. (1995), “has no psychological basis but has two suppositions: that a foreign language can easily be learnt through translation and that grammar is the soul of language.”

Tickoo, M. L. (2003), said, “The psychological

beliefs that prevailed then were (a) that classical languages with their intricate systems of grammar were capable of training human faculties including memory, and (b) that learning these languages was part of a truly liberal education. Teaching and learning primarily aimed at the ability to read full texts rather than to communicate orally in everyday situations.”

GTM believes that the more words and phrases are translated and rules of the language are mastered, the better understanding of the learner of the target language is. Speaking about GTM Chastain, R. K. (1976), tells us that through its name, one can conclude that “it is a mixture of grammar and translation activities. So, learners are required to learn and memorize the rules of grammar deductively and in detail. Along with these rules, learners must memorize lists of vocabulary. Translation is used as a test of learners understanding of the rules of grammar and vocabulary. Learners must translate reading passages into and from the native language. It is also a common practice to ask learners to state the rules.”

Principles of GTM

Thompson, M. S. and Wyatt, H. G. (1964), gave the following basic principles of the GTM:

- (1) Translation interprets foreign phraseology best.
- (2) In the process of interpretation, the foreign phraseology is assimilated.

(3) The structure of the foreign language is best learnt when compared and contrasted with that of the mother tongue.

The advocates of this method, as stated by Bhatia, K. and Bhatia, D. (1972), assert that it is based on some sound principles such as, “(i) foreign phraseology is best interpreted through translation. (ii) foreign phraseology is best assimilated in the process of interpretation. (iii) The structure of foreign language can best be taught by comparing and contrasting it with that of mother tongue; and this is best effected through translation.”

Features of GTM

According to Prator, C. and Celce-Murcia, M. (1979), the key features of the GTM are as follows:

- Classes are taught in mother tongue, with little active use of the target language.
- Much vocabulary is taught in the form of lists of isolated words.
- Long elaborate explanations of the intricacies of grammar are given.
- Grammar provides the rules for putting words together, and instruction often focuses on the form and inflection of words.
- Reading of difficult classical text begins early.
- Little attention is paid to the content of text, which are treated as exercises in grammatical analysis.
- Often the drills are used in translating disconnected

sentences from the target language to the mother tongue.

- Little or no attention is given to pronunciation.

Shroff, R. S. (1990), gave the features of GTM as follows:

1. It stresses the use of formal grammar.
2. The vocabulary depends on the text used.
3. The teaching includes rules of grammar, isolated vocabulary, paradigms and translation.
4. It involves practice in translating text from mother tongue into English.
5. It stresses reading.
6. Vocabulary is divided into lists of words to be memorized.
7. Grammar rules are memorized as units which often include illustrative sentences.
8. Learners hardly use foreign language in the classroom.
9. Pronunciation is either not taught or is limited to a few introductory notes.
10. This method motivates the learners to extract the meaning of the text with the help of broad literary words and detailed grammatical explanations.
11. Grammar is taught analytically and deductively, in an abstract manner.
12. It emphasizes on teaching L2 grammar and translation from and into the target language.
13. It can be used in large classes.
14. It is popular amongst English teachers who lack good spoken English.

15. Every new lesson has no more than two new grammatical rules, very few words and some practical rehearsal for translation.
16. It is a valuable aid in teaching English.
17. Translation is however a powerful aid in the interpretation of a foreign language provided it is not used excessively in all explanations.

Characteristics of GTM

Palmer, H. E. (1969), has pointed out some characteristics of this method as follows:

- (1) It is a valuable aid in teaching English.
- (2) It is easy to follow.
- (3) It is widely used because of its useful proof to use translation, reading and knowledge of grammar.
- (4) Translation is however a powerful aid in the interpretation of a foreign language provided it is not used excessively in all explanations.

The following are the characteristics of GTM as consolidated by Richards, J. C. (1997):

1. The objective of any foreign language learning is to study a language to know its various aspects of literature or to develop intellectually and mentally. Grammar Translation is a method of learning through the study of grammar rules and its applications which ends in translating them into target language. Thus, language learning is considered to be more than mere memorizing the grammar, syntax and other structures of a foreign

language. According to Stern, H. H. (1983), Grammar-Translation Method involves the first language which “is maintained as the reference system in the acquisition of the second language.”

2. Two literary aspects are focused mainly, i.e. reading and writing and the other two aspects of listening and speaking are neglected.

3. Translation method is much focused in grammar translation method. The entire vocabulary section is done by providing the texts and they can be studied through dictionary, word list and simply by memorizing them. Translation equivalents are given for grammatical rules and for practice translation exercises are recommended.

4. The significant feature of method is to concentrate on a sentence as that is considered as a basic unit of teaching. Earlier, entire lesson was filled with translating the text into the target language. This was considered as an instrument to study a foreign language. Later, it was too difficult for learners and therefore the sentence was focused and emphasized through which the learners can have foreign language study in an easier way.

5. According to Howatt, A. P. R. (1984), “Accuracy is emphasized. Learners are expected to attain high standards of accuracy because of the high priority attached to meticulous standards of accuracy which, as well as having an intrinsic moral value, was a pre-requisite for passing the increasing number of normal written examinations that grew up during the century.”

6. A syllabus was designed incorporating grammar translation texts and its sequencing and a serious attempt is made to teach grammar in a systematic way.

7. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers T. S. (1986), “The student’s native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the student’s native language.”

Some of the characteristics of GTM as identified by Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), are:

- a. Grammar Translation is a way of studying a language that approaches the language first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules, followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language.
- b. Reading and writing are major focus; little or no systematic attention is paid to speaking or listening.
- c. Vocabulary selection is based solely on the reading texts used, and words are taught through bilingual word lists, dictionary study and memorization. In a typical Grammar Translation text, the grammar rules are presented and illustrated, a list of vocabulary items is presented with their translation equivalents, and translation exercises are presented.
- d. Accuracy is emphasized. Learners are expected to attain high standards in translation.
- e. Grammar is taught deductively- that is, by presentation and study of grammar rules, which are then practiced

through translation exercises. In most Grammar Translation text, a syllabus was followed for the sequencing of grammar points throughout a text, and there was an attempt to teach grammar in an organized and systematic way.

f. The student's native language is the medium of instruction. It is used to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the foreign language and the student's native language.

Thus, the features and characteristics of GTM may be summarized as follows:

1. Learners' mother tongue is the medium of instruction. It dominates the process of teaching/learning the target language as the method requires word for word translation into the mother tongue of the learner.
2. During the process of translation and comparative study, the structure of the target language is easily comprehended by the learner.
3. Teaching begins with introducing grammatical rules, vocabulary items, paradigms and translation of the whole teaching item into the mother tongue.
4. The linguistic material presented for teaching/learning is graded on a grammatical basis. Hence, it is assumed that a comparative and contrastive study of grammar of the mother tongue and the target language helps in mastering the grammar of the target language and thus facilitating the process of learning.

5. Vocabulary is based on teaching/learning texts. It is understood through translating it into the mother tongue of the learner.
6. The unit of teaching and learning is the word and not the sentence.
7. Pronunciation either is not taught or it is limited to a mere introduction generally through the process of teaching words.

Teaching Procedures and Techniques in GTM

The term 'formal technique' was another name to the GTM. Combination of grammatical rules with translation was an established practice in teaching/learning the target language. The stress on the translation into mother tongue of the learner and vice versa was at the core of the GTM.

In the GTM classroom, the teacher is an autocrat; he dictates everything to learners and the learners have no option but to follow the teacher. Then, the learners work individually and they rarely have interaction with the teacher.

GTM gave due attention to the formal aspect of teaching/learning a language; grammar of the language and translation. Describing this method Howatt, A. P. R. (1984), says, "High priority was attached to meticulous standard of accuracy which was prerequisite for passing the increasing number of formal written examinations that grew up during the nineteenth century. New items

were explained in the learner's mother tongue. Comparisons were made from equivalents in the target language." Learning in a classroom in which principles of the Grammar-Translation Method were followed meant learning, as Dendrinos, Bessie (1992), puts it, "to understand the rules underlying the sentence constructions, to memorize paradigms, to analyze sentences in their constituent parts, to classify these in terms of grammatical categories and to be able to produce new sentences on the basis of the grammar and vocabulary taught."

According to Peter Hubbard, Hywel Jones, et al. (1983), "in GTM, learners had to memorize 'facts' about the language and they were tested on their knowledge by being asked to recite the paradigms or give the translation of words."

The method focuses primarily on grammar, translation, vocabulary, reading and writing skills. A lesson would typically have one or two new grammar rules, a list of vocabulary items and some practice examples of translation from the mother tongue into the target language or vice versa. There was little attention to listening and speaking.

The syllabus comprises also long extracts from prose, poetry, grammar and written works of famous writers chosen for their intellectual contents. Thus, this method is not too demanding on the teacher. In fact, the advocates of this method believe that it provides the

teacher with opportunities to relax for some time by assigning learners' written exercises.

GTM teaching procedures concentrate on the following:

Teaching Grammar

As its name suggests, GTM focuses on teaching of formal grammar of the target language and uses it as a teaching technique. The advocates of GTM believe that the study of grammar inculcates mental discipline and facilitates learning of the language. Grammar rules and principles of grammar are imposed upon learners who must learn them. Thus, accuracy in language is given great importance and committing errors is prohibited.

According to Stern, H. H. (1983), this method emphasizes "the teaching of second language grammar; its principal practice technique is translation from and into the target language." Stern, H. H. (1983), goes on to say that "The language is presented in short grammatical chapters or lessons each containing a few grammar points or rules which are set out and illustrated by examples. The grammatical features that are focused upon in the course book and by the teacher in his lesson are not disguised or hidden. A technical grammatical terminology is not avoided."

For teaching grammar, deductive logic was used to present and study the grammar rules and then the learners practice them through the translation exercises. In other

words, grammar is taught descriptively through the presentation and study of rules. First, a rule was explained and then the examples were given. The grammar rules are presented and illustrated. Learners are taught grammar through rules and not through language exposure. To practice grammar, largely, fill-in-blanks exercises were used. Then, grammar rules are memorized as units which often include illustrative sentences. Thus, GTM is a way of learning a language by studying the rules of its grammar and then applying these rules to the translation of sentence and texts.

Learners are expected to know the rules for writing a correct sentence. To do that, they should understand the logic of grammar, rules and exceptions. The proponents of this method believe that to be an extraordinary intelligent learner is to be exceptional in the knowledge of the rules of grammar and translation. Thus, this method gave great importance to grammar of the target language. In fact, GTM was a way of studying a language that is approached first through detailed analysis of its grammar rules followed by application of this knowledge to the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. It becomes clear that the basic aim of this method was to inculcate understanding of the grammar of the target language to train learners to write the new language perfectly and accurately.

Describing the position of grammar in the material used in GTM, Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986),

said, “Text books consisted of statements of abstract grammar rules, list of vocabulary and sentences for translation. Speaking the foreign language was not the goal of this approach and oral practice, reading aloud the sentences, was limited to learners. This approach to foreign language teaching was known as the Grammar Translation Method.”

Teaching Vocabulary

As it is mentioned earlier, GTM was descriptive in nature as the texts prescribed words in the mother tongue for the words in the target language and also the grammatical rules. The focus is on memorizing not only rules of grammar, but also the vocabulary. Therefore, the unit of teaching is the word. Vocabulary is taught through bilingual word lists. In other words, learners can study the foreign words by bringing out difference of structures and sentences in the target language and that in mother tongue. It means that the exact equivalence in translation gives much exactness and definiteness.

For teaching/learning vocabulary, the standard technique was asking learners to give antonyms or synonyms for a set of words. They were asked to memorize words and phrases. They were also asked to use words in their own sentences. This process is both effective and economical. The learner of the target language acquires clarity and accuracy in the language

form, structure and translation and thus gains a better comprehension of target language. Since the learners get acquainted with the meaning of the new words, phrases and sentences, they obtain a command over the language.

Teaching Reading

This method makes use of reading passages for translation purpose in order to comprehend them. As it was believed that the literary variety was the best form of language, the passages are selected from standard literary texts of the target language. Then, the teacher teaches the passages by giving a model reading and the learners were asked to read as the teacher did. Then, they were asked questions based on the passages they have read. According to Mohammed, Aslam (2003), a reading passage is normally followed by these exercises:

- a) Comprehension questions based on the passage.
- b) Antonyms/synonyms
- c) Cognates: Spelling and sound patterns that correspond in the target language and the mother tongue of the learner.
- d) Fill in the blank exercises involving prepositions, verbs, etc.
- e) Using words in sentences; mostly isolated or decontextualized.
- f) Memorization exercises; learners get words with equivalents from mother tongue for memorization.
- g) Composition: on a given topic.

h) Summarizing/precis: of a given passage.

Teaching Translation

The prescribed textbook has graded vocabulary. A list of vocabulary items is presented with their translation equivalents and translation exercises are prescribed for the learner to practice the art of translating from the target language into the mother tongue and vice versa. Then, the learners were asked to translate selected passages of the target language into their mother tongue. Later on, the same passages were exploited for teaching formal grammar and vocabulary items. As far as vocabulary items are concerned, the teacher translates each and every word of the target language into the mother tongue of the learners. In other words, the teacher fully resorts to translating words of the target language into the mother tongue of the learners. Then, the learners are asked to translate reading passages in the target language. In other words, the learner's mother tongue is, in fact, the medium of instruction. Thus, the mother tongue was used to a greater extent to explain new items and to enable comparisons to be made between the target language and the learner's mother tongue. According to Palmer, H. E. (1969), "When the foreign word to be demonstrated is known to be for all practical purposes the equivalent of a native word, translation is a better mode than definition."

Teaching Writing

To develop writing skills of the learners in the target language, GTM asked learners to write on a given topic which is based on the intellectual material they have already dealt with in the process of reading. Sometimes, they were also given precis writing task in order to test their grasp of the grammatical rules. In this writing activity, the learners are not allowed to make errors as errors are strictly prohibited. If they commit errors, the teacher promptly corrects them. Thus, the learners are evaluated on the basis of their written works that maximizes correctness and minimizes the errors committed. This means that in GTM, the spoken aspect and the listening skills in the target language are not given any prominence. They are almost neglected.

Merits of GTM

GTM reflected the requirements, aspirations, and ambitions of 19th. century Grammar Schools, teachers and learners. It is not a demanding method on the part of teachers. Therefore, GTM was popular among the teachers. In fact, it is an easy method for them to the extent that even an ordinary teacher can do well in teaching the target language through this method as it does not require special training or specialized skills on the part of the teacher. Its special appeal for teachers in foreign languages teaching/learning situation lies in the long-established beliefs in the power of the mother tongue in target

language learning. It also believed in the power of memory and its successful use in early learning of not only languages, but other subjects as well. Therefore, it enjoyed the widest popularity in most parts of the world. In fact, with few modifications, it is still used today in some parts of the world. According to Mukalel, J. C. (1998), “of all the second or foreign language teaching methods, grammar-translation method took the longest period of time to evolve finally into almost a universal foreign language teaching method. It has been so universal and its impact so great and lasting that even today grammar translation method survives in various forms in all parts of the world.”

GTM was part of the long-established tradition of teaching classical languages in England and thus the British schools served as a model for schools in most of its colonies. It had been used widely among individual scholars because the traditional scholastic ambitions among learners in the 18th. century had been to acquire a reading knowledge of a foreign language by studying grammar and by applying their knowledge to the interpretation of the classical texts into their mother tongue. Therefore, most of them became scholars in classical grammar and knew how to apply the familiar categories to new languages.

Thus, the merits of GTM may be put as follows:

- GTM is an easy method to be followed in teaching a target language. It requires no hard labor on the part of the

teachers as they feel pleasant because it puts no great demand on them. It requires no originality, no highly qualified teacher, no deep thinking and no pre-planning. It was thought to be the shortest road to learn a target language. Therefore, can be used in all teaching situations.

- GTM is helpful in enriching the learners' vocabulary stock and acquiring a quick and clear understanding of the meaning of words. In fact, the first step of language learning in GTM is to get the meaning of new words through the mother tongue. It is supposed that translation interprets foreign phraseology in the best manner. Thus, new vocabulary is introduced and easily explained in the mother tongue. The learners understand the target language word as soon as mother tongue equivalent for it is given to them. Thus, GTM establishes a strong bond between foreign phraseology and mother tongue of the learner and creates a strong place for the phraseology in the memory as it is associated with mother tongue equivalent.

- GTM saves the time by clarifying abstract terms like honesty, good, bad, etc. and explaining them in the mother tongue of the learner without much effort or time waste.

- GTM explains even concrete objects through translation into the mother tongue of the learner. This is based on an assumption that a word should not be explained in more difficult words than the word itself. Thus, the explanation in the mother tongue of the learners makes the concept

clear to they feel relaxed. Objects which may be beyond the direct experience of the learners of the target language like ocean, planet, etc., can easily be explained through direct translation into the mother tongue. Thus, GTM makes a maximum use of the learners' knowledge of his mother tongue and helps develop the art of translation in learners.

- GTM develops the reading skill of the learner in the target language because without practicing reading skill in the target language, a word for word translation into the mother tongue is not possible.
- As GTM adopts deductive and explicit handling of the target language, it gives correct knowledge of sentences of the target language and explains grammatical rules descriptively, explicitly and deductively through the presentation and study of rules and not implicitly, prescriptively or inductively through the context.
- GTM can be used even in the absence of teaching aid as it gives the meaning directly through the mother tongue of the learner.
- GTM is useful to test the comprehension of the learners as it depends heavily on reading material.
- GTM could easily be used in large classes as the teacher does not need to have an individual attention to each learner.

Demerits of GTM

GTM was not approved by some methodologists and scholars. In fact, it had frequently encountered a great deal of criticism from many scholars. Criticizing GTM, Palmer, H. E. and Palmer, D. (1959), says, (1) It treats all languages as if they were dead, consisting essentially of a collection of ancient documents which are to be deciphered and analyzed. (2) It categorically ignores all considerations of phonetics, pronunciation and acoustic image; and boldly places language on foundation of alphabets, spellings and writing system. (3) It assumes translation to be the main or only procedure for the learning of vocabulary. (4) It assumes that the mastery of words and sentence-structure is to be attained mainly or solely through the memorizing of the so-called rules of grammar.

Palmer, H. E. and Palmer, D. (1959), catalogues the weaknesses of this method in the following words: “It is one which treats all languages as if they were dead, as if each consisted essentially of a collection of ancient documents to be deciphered and analysed ... It is the one which categorically ignores all considerations of phonetics, pronunciations and acoustic image, and boldly places language on a foundation of alphabets, spellings and writing systems... It is the one which assumes translation to be the main or only procedure for the learning of vocabulary ... It is the one which assumes that word and sentence structure is to be attained mainly or

solely through the memorising of the so-called rules of grammar.”

Mackey, W. F. (1965), points out that GTM made the learners strong in the grammar of the target language, but utterly neglected the development of communicative skills of the learner in the target language. In other words, in GTM there was little concern for developing the ability to communicate orally in the target language. Moreover, the scholastic method of this kind was not well suited for younger school pupils at the initial classes of the school level. In fact, it was devised and developed for use in secondary school learners as they are elder enough to get involved in its intellectual activities of studying grammar and translating passages. Therefore, it could be even called the ‘Grammar School Method’. Thus, it can be said that GTM was a self-study method which was inappropriate for group teaching in large classrooms. Moreover, some of the vocabulary (words, idioms, and phrases) that the culture of a target language evolves seldom finds exact matching equivalents in all other languages. In other words, there is hardly a perfect language on the earth which can interpret all cultures and environments. According to Jain, R. K. (1923), “The vocabulary idioms and phrases, which is evolved in the culture and environment of a particular nation seldom find matching equivalents in any other language.”

Shroff, R. S. (1990), says that the GTM “has a number of limitations. It tells one about the language. It

does not teach how to use the language without the interference of mother tongue. It forgets that a language is a living thing and changes as per needs. Translation assumes that there is one to one correspondence between the two languages. This is simply not true. No two languages are same in respect of vocabulary, sentence patterns or meanings. It is difficult to translate idioms. As the method does not stress speaking, the product of this method lacks the fluency and easiness which one expects in any language learning.”

More drawbacks of GTM have been pointed out by Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, J. C. (1983), when they say, “The ‘Grammar’ part of ‘Grammar Translation’ was attacked, partly because the grammar used was actually inappropriate to English, and partly it was felt that too much emphasis on grammar led to learning about the language rather than learning to use the language. However, while the basic patterns of the language were often learnt in a very formal way, together with lists of words, the translation procedure was supposed to help learners to use the language successfully.”

Sharma, K. L. (1973), says that it will be better not to make grammar the sole subject of the whole time. He goes on to say that the study of grammar should not begin until the learners have acquired a working knowledge of the target language. He further adds more drawbacks and weaknesses of the GTM by telling that “if this method is overrated, it will not help learners to learn good

conversation and last through their life.” According to him, teaching in the traditional manner “is a waste of time and energy.” Moreover, the aims of GTM are related to examination targets whereas the knowledge acquired in the process of learning is ‘never used in life’. This is basically because the grammar of a language is the description of the language; something ‘about the language’ and not the language itself. It involves the learner in learning a set of rules and paradigms governing the structure of the language and not the language itself. Criticizing this method, Rouse, W. H. D. quoted in Kelly, L. G. (1969), sarcastically remarks that the aim of this method was “to know everything about something, rather than the thing itself.” Therefore, learning a language through studying its grammatical way naturally leads to book-oriented use of the target language. Speech which is a part of the learner’s target in learning a language is not developed.

Bloomfield, L. (1933), criticized GTM by saying: “Translation into the native language is bound to mislead the learner, because the semantic units of different languages do not match and because the student under the practiced stimulus of the native form is almost certain to forget the foreign one.”

Moore, F. W. (1961), voices the predicament of GTM picturesquely by stating, “The result is that having done the translation, the pupil is almost as far from the goal as ever. The child who is brought up in this method

is like ‘the would be swimmer’ who fears to let go his hold on bath rail and, if employed to do so, either makes spasmodic efforts at swimming in shallow water or soon gets out of its depths with disastrous consequences.”

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), highlighted the major limitations of the GTM as follows: “It is a method for which there is no theory. There is no literature that offers a rationale or justification for it or that attempts to relate it to issues in linguistics, psychology, or educational theory.”

Pahuja, N. P. (1995), points out several demerits in the GTM by saying:

- In this method no emphasis is put on speaking, reading and writing.
- This method fails to teach correct articulation, intonation and pronunciation.
- Some words, idioms and phrases in English which reflect the culture, tradition and customs of English people and they can-not be translated into mother-tongue without losing the correct effect.
- Some structures in English language cannot be translated into Indian languages.
- This method over-emphasizes the grammatical rules which made learning tedious, uninteresting and mechanical.

Clark, J. L. (1987), vehemently says, “Experience has shown that despite the linguistic competence built up by high achievers in grammar translation courses the

expected by product a communicative ability-has not materialized.”

Champion, H. C. (1957), gives additional defects of this method as follows:

1. It stresses on reading more than training in speech.
2. Translation as a means of teaching meanings is not much useful because the thoughts, feelings, surroundings and customs of one nation differ from those of others. Those differences are reflected in the language and color the connotations of the simple words. Consequently, it is very difficult to find meaning equivalent in any two languages.
3. It fails to create direct contact between thought and expression. That is to say, there is always the ‘Gravitational Pull’ of the mother tongue.
4. Courses and lessons are burdensome to the interest of the learners.
5. Ignorance of phonetics, pronunciation and fluency in speech is noticeable.
6. Other aspects of English teaching such as reading, speaking and listening are ignored.
7. There is always a habit of mental-translation between LI and L2.
8. Chance of developing oral expression is reduced.
9. It is a one-sided achievement rather than two.
10. It is almost always very difficult to find exact equivalence of a word of one language in another language.

11. Skills of communicating are neglected.
 12. It is not successful with less intelligent learners because they find the language tedious.
 13. Making many mistakes over and over again will build up cumulative habits of inaccuracy.
 14. It perpetuates traditional fallacies and presents numerous pitfalls.
- It does not teach the language itself, but about the language.
15. It does not differentiate between the various structures of LI and the target language.
 16. The study of grammar should not begin until the learners have acquired a working knowledge of the language. It will be better not to make grammar the sole subject of the whole time.

In fact, the method has neither theoretical basis nor has it a rationale or justification for loading the memory of the learner with only the grammar and vocabulary of the target language which are hardly used in practical life. Moreover, the main problems with GTM were that it was paying attention solely to the ability to analyze the target language and not to the ability to use it communicatively. It means that the emphasis on reading and writing did not help much in promoting the ability to communicate orally in the target language.

In short, the main defects of GTM can be put as follows:

- GTM is an unnatural method as the learner learns mostly the grammar of the target language and translation from the target language into the mother tongue and vice versa, however, such an activity never gave any attention to the communicative aspects in the target language.
- GTM involves the learner in the process of literal translation from the target language into the mother tongue and vice versa and this ruins the sense and beauty of the target language.
- It is not possible to learn a target language just by getting involved in translating it into the learner's mother tongue.
- Switching from the mother tongue to the target language in the process of learning creates mental excretion to the learner. It makes the whole teaching/learning activity dull, monotonous and boring for the average learner because it gives no place to any activity on the part of the learner.
- GTM cannot be used to interpret correctly the whole target language phraseology because language is the product of a particular culture. It is influenced by its own cultural linguistic heritage which may contain many words that are not possible to be translated exactly into the mother tongue. Thus, the vocabulary, idioms and phrases in one language seldom find an exact matching equivalent in other languages.
- GTM made learners know about the language and its mechanical aspects, but they couldn't use it in speech practice. It means that GTM ignores the natural way of

learning a language through listening, speaking, reading and writing.

- GTM makes learners passive in the process of learning. They only listen to the teacher or read and translate the material which is imposed upon them.
- GTM involves the learner in a detailed, prescriptive, and explicit analysis of grammar rules and then drives the learner to apply that grammatical knowledge on the task of translating sentences and texts into and out of the target language. This process may cultivate memorization of rules only, however, all these activities do not provide an opportunity to speak the target language.
- In GTM, the vocabulary selection is based solely on the texts used whereas the texts used are mostly literary and intellectual texts and might not possess any relation with the vocabulary of the spoken language. Thus, the ordinary learner fails to use them in free expression through the target language.
- In GTM, stress is always on morphology and syntax whereas this is a part of the analytic game that does not help the learner to develop the communicative skills in the target language.
- GTM does not offer opportunities for the learner to get involved in silent reading which is most needed for the comprehension of texts written in the target language.
- GTM may fulfill the need and requirement of foreign language teaching where communication through the target language is not the main target, but it can't fulfill

the need and requirement of second language teaching where the learner's sole aim is to learn how to communicate through the target language.

The Direct Method

Definition

In the New International Dictionary by Webster, N. (1943), the Direct Method (DM) is defined in the following manner: “It is a method of teaching a foreign language through conversation, discussion and reading in the language, without translation and without the study of formal grammar.”

Howatt, A. P. R. (1984), aptly defined the Direct Method as follows: “The direct method originated in a desire to do something that the schools of the time were not doing, and could not do, namely to teach first languages as practical skills for everyday purposes of social survival questions of educational value and worthwhileness were irrelevant. What mattered was the ability to communicate effectively in ordinary life.”

According to Singh, Y. K. (2005), DM means, “minimising the use of the mother-tongue, it employs means which make students understand new linguistic material as directly as they can understand the same in their mother-tongue.”

Background

In the 17th. century, theoreticians’ circles found that just studying grammar and getting involved in

translation, as it was used to be done in GTM, are inadequate to learn the target language. Theoreticians realized that involving learners in translation and description of a language hampered the learners' progress in learning the target language. In fact, even teachers felt that the GTM failed to make the learners vocal or communicative. They realized that GTM could not offer a clear picture of the practical aspects of the target language. Such critical attitudes towards GTM contributed to the appearance of the Direct Method.

Thus, the new movement which led to the emergence of DM was anti-GTM. Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), has pointed out that the DM was developed "as a reaction to the Grammar-Translation Method." Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, J. C. (1983), also described the arrival of the DM as "a reaction against the grammar translation method. It implies a direct contact between the student and the foreign language without using the student's native language or grammar deductively." It means that DM was a departure from the deductive, explicit and descriptive handling of the target language towards inductive, implicit and prescriptive dealing with the target language. It was an attempt to imitate the way a child acquires his mother tongue and apply it in learning the target language. Therefore, it gave more concentration to the spoken aspects of the target language.

The educationist Francois, Gouin (1831-1896), was one of the first of the 19th century reformers who

attempted to build a methodology around observations of child language learning. Francois, Gouin's own experiences of learning German gave him insights into the complications of language teaching/learning. Consequently, in 1880, he produced the book, titled, 'Art of Teaching and Learning of Languages'. He came to the conclusion that language learning is a matter of transforming 'perceptions' into 'conceptions.' Francois, Gouin's main aim was to treat language learning as a connected series of activities actually performed in real life. He used a sequence of simple events as his text material. Learners were taught directly a series of connected sentences which were easy to understand. The teacher has to describe each act in the target language and then set reading and writing exercises on the basis of it. Therefore, Francois, Gouin's method came to be known as the 'Series Method'.

In fact, the reaction against the GTM did not result only in the emergence of Direct Method, but also gave rise to the appearance of many methods which have the same spirit of the Direct Method. Lado, R. (1964), is of the opinion that, "The movement resulted in various individual methods with various names, such as new method, reform method, natural method, and even oral method, but they can all be referred to as direct method or the direct methods." Thus, the emerging method had some seeds of the latter well known methods such as 'Activity Method', 'Situational Method' and also the

‘Natural Method’. It is very clear that the attention was paid to naturalistic principles of language learning. In other words, the increase of modern language teaching/learning activities in the West gave rise to what Howatt, A. P. R. (1984), called “natural methods of language teaching.” Champion, H. C. (1957), says that the Direct Method is sometimes called ‘Reform Method’ or ‘Natural Method’. Thus, this reform movement was termed as Natural Method and ultimately it led to the development known as Direct Method. In other words, whatever a method it may be called, it may be referred to as the Direct Method because it teaches the target language directly with resorting to the mother tongue of the learner, grammar or translation.

However, the main seeds of the Direct Method sprang from Germany and were made popular by the ‘International Phonetic Association of French Teachers’ which was founded in 1886. Those seeds grew and fruited into the Direct Method in France and Germany around 1900. Then, it spread in the foreign language teaching situations all over the world in the first half of the 20th century. It became as a reform which had been very much needed in the methods of teaching languages since a long time.

One of the most famous advocates of the Direct Method was the German Charles, Berlitz whose schools and ‘Berlitz Method’ are now world-renowned. Charles, Berlitz believed that “Direct Method implies direct

association of the foreign speech with the learner's thought, i.e. thinking in a foreign language." In Berlitz' schools still these principles are being followed for oral language learning and the following guidelines which are cited by Titone, R. (1968), are derived from them:

"Never translate: demonstrate.

Never explain: act.

Never make a speech: ask question.

Never imitate mistakes: correct.

Never speak with single words: sentences.

Never speak too much: make students speak much.

Never use the book: use your lesson plan.

Never go too fast: keep the space of the student.

Never speak too slowly: Speak normally.

Never speak too quickly: speak naturally.

Never speak too loudly: speak naturally.

Never be impatient: take it easy."

According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), "These principles provided the theoretical foundations for a principled approach to language teaching, one based on a scientific approach to the study of language and of language learning. They reflect the beginnings of the discipline of applied linguistics - that branch of language study concerned with the scientific study of second and foreign language teaching and learning."

In Germany, the prominent scholar Victor, W. (1850-1918), used linguistic theory to justify his views on

language teaching to support the new teaching process. Victor W., Sweet H. and other reformers in the nineteenth century shared many beliefs about the principles on which a new approach to teaching foreign language should be based. In general, the reformers, as cited in Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), believed that:

1. the spoken language is primary and important and that this should be reflected in an oral based methodology that give due attention to develop the speaking skill of the learner;
2. the findings of phonetics should be applied to teaching and to teacher training so that the learner receives the correct pronunciation of the target language;
3. learners should hear the language first, before seeing it in the written form as the written form target language may not reflect exactly its spoken form;
4. words should be presented in sentences and sentence should be practiced in meaningful contexts and not to be taught as isolated, disconnected elements. Thus, it emphasized on contextual meaning of the words;
5. the rules of grammar should be taught only after students have practiced grammar points in contexts. It means that grammar should be taught inductively;
6. translation should be avoided, although the mother tongue could be used in order to explain new words or to check comprehension so as to give the learner a chance to grasp the target language and feel it.

Sauveur, Lambert, (1875), and other believers in

the Direct Method argue that the target language could be taught without translation; without the use of the learner's mother tongue. They advocated conveying the meaning directly through demonstration and action and through the target language itself. Consequently, the Direct Method attracted many teaching circles in Europe who were fed up with GTM. Enthusiastic supporters of the Direct Method introduced it in France and Germany. In 1908, it was sanctioned, but revised in 1909 and again in 1925-26.

Thus, it was Francois Gouin, Sauveur Lambert, Franke F. and Berlitz M. D. at whose efforts the Direct Method enjoyed widespread circulation and stronghold domination throughout Europe and America during the late nineteenth and early twentieth century.

DM and the Culture of the Target Language

Francois, Gouin devoted a whole chapter in his book 'Art of Teaching and Learning of Languages' to discuss the importance of the culture of the target language in teaching it. In fact, the preoccupation of Direct Method with culture in language teaching is self-evident as it realized the importance of teaching the culture of the target language and regarded the cultural content as an important part of the content of language teaching/learning. Moreover, many scholars, who were practicing the method, supported the cultural implication and dimension of foreign language teaching/learning. For

example, Kelly, M. (2001) and Huebner, T. (1998), demanded that the material that was presented in language courses must provide a natural introduction to the culture of the target language. All this, according to Xiao Long-Fu, (2001), enabled the learners of the target language “to learn the foreign behaviour patterns in accordance with the language, in an attempt to simulate natural effective language use rather than the intellectual analytical characteristics of grammar-translation.”

DM and the Target Language Grammar

One of the most prominent aspects of the revolution of the Direct Method against the GTM is that the Direct Method excluded translation and grammar from the process of teaching/learning the target language. According to the German scholar Frank, F. (1884) as quoted in Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), “A language could best be taught by using it actively in the classroom. Rather than using analytical procedures that focus on explanation of grammar rules. In the classroom teaching teacher must encourage direct and spontaneous use of the foreign language in the classroom. Learners would then be able to induce rules of grammar. The teacher replaced the textbook in the early stages of learning. Speaking began with systematic attention to pronunciation. Known words could be used to teach new vocabulary, using mime, demonstration, and pictures.”

The Direct Method, as Rao, K. Venugopal (2003),

points out, insists that grammar must follow the teaching-learning process, but not precede it. The Direct Method accepts teaching of grammar of function (functional grammar), but not that of form (formal grammar). Thus, grammar is learnt prescriptively, inductively and implicitly and not descriptively, deductively or explicitly. Champion, H. C. (1957), says that the Direct Method aims “to develop in the pupil that instinctive unerring language sense which we all possess in varying degree in the mother-tongue, and which superseding all rules, grammars and dictionaries, resting at bottom on the direct association between experience and expression, is the only sure guide in the use of a language.” Therefore, he says that grammar, in the Direct Method, “is not regarded as an end in itself, but as a language. Again, Grammar follows and does not precede the learning process.” Thus, as far as the status of grammar of the target language is concerned what Hymes, D. has later on said may be apt in this context. Hymes, D. (1971), noted, “There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless.”

Aims of the Direct Method

Francois, Gouin turned his attention to observation of child language learning and made attempts to make target language learning more like the learning of the mother tongue. The emphasis on teaching the target language directly, without the intervention of mother

tongue and its stress on oral practice, vocabulary selection and teaching of functional, in place of, formal grammar, made the Direct Method attractive to theoreticians and teaching circles. Therefore, DM is supposed to be the method in which teaching enables the learners to think in the target language and to express themselves in the same. According to Stern, H. H. (1983), it was “a first attempt to make the language learning situation one of language use and to train the learner to abandon the first language as the frame of reference.” According to Rivers, W. M. (1986), the ultimate aim of Direct Method was to develop the ability to “think in the language, whether one was conversing, reading or writing.” Jain, R. K. (1968), says that the Direct Method “aims at introducing the language directly to the learner in the same way a child learns his mother tongue. It assumes that the same takes place in learning the mother tongue There is no interference in the form of translation or use of rules to explain a particular pattern of the language. Language learning here rests on the imitation of good models.”

According to Bhatia, K. and Bhatia, D. (1972), the main aim of teaching English by this method is to enable the learner “to think in English and to discourage the practice of inwardly thinking in one’s vernacular and then overtly translating the thought into the foreign language. He should be able to grasp what he hears or reads in English and should be able to express his thoughts and wishes directly and fluently so that in due course of time

he obtains a real command over the language.”

Pahuja, N. P. (1995), states a similar purpose of teaching through this method by saying that the purpose of Direct Method is “to make the pupil think in English” and further “to acquire a real command over the language.”

Assumptions of the Direct Method

As the DM was a reaction against the GTM, the major assumptions of this method were in opposition to those of the GTM. In the opinion of Diller, K. C. (1978), as quoted by Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), this method has one basic rule: “no translation is allowed.” Thus, it is evident that there is almost no scope for the learners’ mother-tongue in Direct Method class. This method emphasizes that the target language can be learnt in the same way the learner acquires his own mother tongue; by getting involved in conversation directly. In other words, the adherents to the Direct Method accepted the assumption which says that, as Wringe, C. (1976), puts it, “language learning was a matter of understanding and applying grammatical rules, even though these had to be explained in a language not yet known to the pupils.” He goes on to assume that, “The role characteristically ascribed to the direct method teacher was that of explaining the meaning of texts to pupils, while the pupils’ role was to follow or at least to strive to do so.”

The significant assumption of this method,

according to Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), is “that the older students should learn a second language in the same way as a child learns its mother tongue.” It assumed that a learner would immediately pick up the target language if he/she is sufficiently exposed to it like the way he/she was exposed to his/her mother tongue. According to O’Grady, W., as quoted by Thirumalai, M. S. (2002), “Adult L2 learners can learn a second language in essentially the same manner as a child. Therefore, if possible, the teacher should try to create a natural learning environment within the classroom. Instead of explicit grammar instruction, the major emphasis is on communicating. Classes are carried out totally in the second language with absolutely no reliance on the first language or on any form of translation. The expectation is that through question-and-answer dialogues, the second language will gradually be acquired. Problems have arisen with such an approach because adults do not, in fact, learn exactly like children, and they express the need for explicit instruction in grammar and other aspects of the second language.”

The spirit of the Direct Method is ingrained in the statement of Champion, H. C. (1957), which says, “the power house language is not the outcome, but the condition of all fruitful observation and classification of its phenomena ... The particular must precede the general, the concrete, the abstract, practice must precede theory.”

According to Tickoo, M. L. (2003), the Direct Method is associated with the following precepts and

practices in the foreign language classroom:

- a. Speech being the basis of language, the shortest and safest approach to gaining control of another language is through listening and speaking.
- b. The first language serves as the roadblocks to the acquisition of second language or subsequent language. Success in teaching therefore lies in minimising and suppressing the mother tongue.
- c. The teaching of grammar should follow and not precede the learning of a language for use.
- d. Translation from and into mother tongue can be unhelpful and harmful in most cases. It should be used when other means fail to work.

Principles of the Direct Method

Gurrey, P. (1966), says, “essentially, it (the Direct Method) is a [principle], not a teaching method, a system that operates through many methods, a way of handling the new language and of presenting to the class. It demands a direct bond that is a direct association between word and thing and between sentence and idea, between experience and expression instead of an indirect one through the mother tongue.” Thus, Gurrey, P. (1966), does not consider this as a ‘method’ at all, but merely a principle. In his opinion: “The direct method can be used in conjunction with other methods because it is not probably a ‘method’ at all. It is a principle and it is one of the main principles of psychology of language that can be

directly translated into class room procedure. It can and should be applied to almost all the teaching of foreign language; in teaching of grammar, new words, new constructions and new sentence patterns.”

Gurrey, P. (1966), while explaining the principle of the Direct Method says, “The principle may be explained as the associating of the word of thing, of thing with context, and of context with expression in the new language, context may be idea, event or whole situation; but the fullest application of the method is the is the associating of a complete thought expressed in the words with the real experience that would give the occasion and impulse for the thought.”

The principles of this method are clearly stated and paraphrased by Childers, J. (1964), when he says:

1. Language is made up of sounds, not letters; therefore, speaking is the first aim, the training of the ear and tongue precedes that of the eye.
2. Connected discourse and not isolated sentences is used because the expressions given should be full of meaning.
3. Language is learnt in a natural way as a child learns its mother. The grammar translation method should be discarded and avoided.
4. learners should learn grammar inductively.

According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), the principles of the Direct Method are as follows:

1. Classroom instruction is conducted exclusively in the target language.

2. Only everyday vocabulary and sentences are taught.
3. Oral communication skills are built up in a carefully traded progression organized around question-and-answer exchanges between teachers and students in small, intensive classes.
4. Grammar is taught inductively.
5. New teaching points are taught through modeling and practice.
6. Concrete vocabulary is taught through demonstration, objects, and pictures; abstract vocabulary is taught by association of ideas.
7. Both speech and listening comprehension are taught.
8. Correct pronunciation and grammar are emphasized.

Thus, the principles of Direct Method can be summarized as follows:

1. Direct Method avoids using the mother tongue of the learner. In fact, there is a total inhibition of the mother tongue. It is used only when the learner does not get a clear idea about a particular word or situation through direct association in the target language.
2. Direct Method emphasizes on listening and speaking the target language. It means that it emphasizes on oral and communicative aspect of teaching the target language.
3. Direct Method establishes a direct association between word, idea, sentence, expression and the meaning in the target language itself so as to facilitate learning. It establishes a direct bond between experience/concept and

expression.

4. Direct Method uses the full sentences to facilitate grasping of the meaning in context and avoids using isolated words.
5. In Direct Method, learning takes place in situational context by connecting sentences to related contexts for getting suitable meanings.
6. Direct Method avoids translation into the mother tongue of the learner or explaining grammar prescriptively, deductively or explicitly.
7. Direct Method creates an active atmosphere of the target language in the class-room to encourage interaction among learners so as to make them use the target language communicatively.

Features of the Direct Method

Palmer, H. E. (1969), the exponent of this method, has pointed out the following features:

1. Translation in any form is banished from the classroom, including the use of mother-tongue and of the bilingual dictionary.
2. Grammar, when it is taught, is taught inductively.
3. Oral teaching precedes any form of reading and writing.
4. The use of disconnected sentences is replaced by the use of connected texts.

5. Pronunciation is to be taught systematically on more or less phonetic lines.
6. The meaning of words and forms are taught by means of objects, or by natural contexts.
7. The vocabulary and structure of the language are inculcated to a large extent by questions asked by the teacher and answered by the pupils.

Mackey, W. F. (1965), gives the features of the Direct Method in the following manner:

1. It emphasizes the use of everyday vocabulary and structure.
2. It uses many new items in the same lesson to make the language sound natural and encourages normal conversation.
3. It uses oral teaching of grammar and vocabulary.
4. It teaches grammar by situation.
5. It illustrates grammar through visual presentation.
6. It extends listening and imitation until forms become automatic.

Characteristics of the Direct Method

The basic characteristic of Direct Method according to Singh, Y. K. (2005), is by “minimising the use of the mother-tongue, it employs means which make students understand new linguistic material as directly as they can understand the same in their mother-tongue.”

Bose, Kshanika (1999), gives the following main

characteristic of the Direct Method: “The use of learner’s native tongue is not required if meaning is conveyed directly through demonstration, action, pictures, and objects, spoken narratives, dictation, imitation and such other displays and directions, the method attempts to make language learning situation centre on language use. Oral communication shall be built up on small graded progression of question-answer exchanges. New teaching points should be introduced as inductive grammar teaching needs to be done.”

Pahuja, N. P. (1995), points out the main characteristic of this method as follows: “that in this method a direct bond is developed between words and ideas, work and experience. This type of association helps to clarify the meaning of words. It needs a full contextual situation. In this method the unit of teaching is ‘sentence’ and not ‘word’. Audio-visual material is used extensively to explain meaning, much stress is laid on speech. The use of mother tongue is not allowed, grammar is taught inductively i.e. indirectly. No effort is made to teach grammar and it is assumed that learners will themselves infer the grammatical rules.”

The main characteristic of this method according to Kulkarni, A. D. (1972), is “its emphasis on teaching English directly, emphasis on the oral aspect of English, on making pupil constantly hear and speak English, on forbidding the use of mother tongue, on treating a sentence as a unit of expression, on teaching grammar

inductively, functionally, and on the Aural-Oral approach of teaching English.”

The main characteristics of the Direct Method, as stated by Mackey, W. F. (1965), are:

1. The use of everyday vocabulary and structure.
2. Grammar taught by situation.
3. Use of many new items in the same lesson to encourage normal conversation.
4. Oral teaching of grammar and vocabulary.
5. Concrete meaning through object lessons, abstract ones through the association of ideas.
6. Most of the work is done in the classroom and therefore more class hours are needed.
7. The first few weeks devoted to pronunciation.
8. All reading presented orally.
9. Both speech and listening comprehension are taught.

According to Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), the Direct Method differs from GTM in many ways. The following characteristics make it different from the GTM:

- The goal of the Direct Method is to make the learners learn how to communicate in the target language, not to translate literary texts from one language into another. To be able to do this, learners should learn to think in the target language.
- The teacher demonstrates the meaning of new words or phrases through the use of pictures or mime because he believes that learners need to associate meaning and the target language directly, not through translation

into their mother tongue. In fact, the learner's mother tongue is never used.

- Although the teacher directs the class activities, the learners are less passive than in the other method.
- Learners are made to speak in the target language a great deal and communicate as if they were in real situations. Thus, the syllabus is based on situations and topics.
- Grammar is taught inductively. The learners are presented with examples and are asked to figure out the rules for themselves from the examples. The learners practise vocabulary by using the new words in complete sentences.
- Oral communication is seen as basic, although work on all the four skills (listening, speaking, reading, and writing) occurs from the beginning of the course. For instance, reading and writing exercises are based on what the students practise orally first. This is because language is recognized as primarily spoken, not written.
- The teacher employs various techniques to get students to self-correct whenever possible.

Teaching Procedures and Practices of DM

Describing the teaching practices through the Direct Method, Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), says, "The teacher described each event in the foreign language and as reading and writing tasks on these lessons. The

teachers used full sentences in the foreign language as input rather than words and phrases; no translation was used. The aim of the direct method was to get the learner to think in the target language.”

According to Ediger, M., et al. (2003), “The direct method is a method of teaching English directly. To teach English directly is to establish a direct or immediate association between experience and expression, between the English word, phrase, or idiom and as meaning in other words of establishing in connection with English the same habit of direct experience as exists in the use of mother-tongue.”

The Direct Method places emphasis on teacher’s formal questions and answers, monologues, direct repetition and accurate production of target language sentences. Rivers, W. M. as quoted by Abdelrahman, M. Yeddi (2018), gives a vivid description of a Direct Method class as follows: “A Direct Method class provided a clear contrast with the prevailing grammar-translation classes. The course began with the learning of the foreign words and phrases for objects and actions in the classroom. When these could be used readily and appropriately the learning moved to the common situations and settings of everyday life, the lesson often developing around specially constructed pictures of life in the country where the language was spoken. Where the meaning of words could not be made clear by concrete representations, the teacher resorted to miming, sketches

or explanations in the foreign language but never supplied native language translations. From the beginning, the students were accustomed to hear complete and meaningful sentences which formed part of a simple discourse, often in the form of a question-answer interchange. Grammar was not taught explicitly and deductively as in the grammar-translation class but was learnt largely through practice. Students were encouraged to draw their own structural generalizations from what they had been learning by an inductive process. In this way, the study of grammar was kept at a functional level, being confined to those which were continually being used in speech. When grammar was taught more systematically, at a later stage, it was taught in a foreign language with the use of foreign language terminology.”

In practice, Direct Method stood for the following teaching procedures:

1. Avoiding the mother tongue of the learners and conducting classroom teaching exclusively in the target language to enable the learner to comprehend the target language directly.
2. Introducing new teaching points orally through direct presentation.
3. Building up oral skills of the learner through a carefully graded progression which was organized around question-answer interaction between the teacher and the learners in small intensive classes.

4. Both speech and listening comprehension were taught and given special emphasis.
5. Correct pronunciation and grammar were also emphasized to train learners in correct utterances in the target language.
6. Teaching grammar prescriptively, inductively; implicitly and not descriptively, explicitly or deductively.
7. Everyday vocabulary and sentences were given attention and priority in the process of teaching so as to enable the learner to build up the productive skills.
8. Teaching concrete vocabulary by means of demonstration, objects and pictures whereas abstract vocabulary was taught through the association of ideas.

Merits of the Direct Method

This method is psychologically sound as it follows the principles like ‘from particular to general’, ‘from known to unknown’, ‘from concrete to abstract’ and ‘from example to rule’. The merits of the Direct Method may be summarized as follows:

1. It is a natural method as it tries to assimilate the same way the child acquires its own mother tongue.
2. It aspires to make the learner think in the target language.
3. It gives priority to develop fluency in oral skill to develop the learner’s ability to interact in the target language.

4. It aspires to provide the learner ample practice in listening and speaking.
5. It aspires to develop command over various skills of the language almost simultaneously.
6. It aspires to make an easy understanding of the target language by way of intensive practice of oral skill.
7. It tries to improve learner's pronunciation, stress and intonation skill by concentrating on oral activities.
8. It anticipates improvement of the learner's writing skill as the learner who speaks fluently would automatically write properly.
9. The teacher uses various types of audio-visual aids. This makes the process of teaching easy, interesting, effective and pleasant.

Demerits of the Direct Method

However, many criticisms were directed against the Direct Method. It means that the Direct Method was not without its own demerits. It was considered, in the words of Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), as "the product of enlightened amateurism." Brown, H. D. (1994), points out that Direct Method "did not take well in public education where the constraints of budget, classroom size, time, and teacher background made such a method difficult to use." Therefore, he considered Direct Method as a theoretically ill-founded method.

Dixon, R. J. (1960), says that the Direct Method is

not strictly speaking a method of foreign language teaching. He assumes that it is more a principle which can operate through various possible methods. According to Dixon, R. J. (1960), there are two fallacies in the Direct Method. The first of these lies in the assumption of the classroom for home and the second in the notion that the child is a good language learner.

However, in spite of the fevered attempts to inject the culture of the target language into the learners, Xiao Long-Fu, (2001), says that, “the lack of a well-defined socio-linguistic and socio-cultural theoretical basis made the teaching of cultural content incidental and something subordinated to the teaching of the language.”

Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, J. C. (1983), commented on the method by saying, “...all the statements used were related to the classroom. Teachers did not generally think of students using language beyond the classroom. Any connection with the real life was expected to come later and was not the business of the school.”

Direct Method failed to create a true and practical language teaching method that benefits the learner outside the classroom. Stern, H. H. (1983), maintains that “Even the shift towards an attention to the spoken form, which occurred by the end of the nineteenth century, did not bring about a fundamentally new approach to language in society. Language learning in the classroom continued to be conceived as training rather than as ‘real’

communication or as an introduction to a foreign society. This emphasis on learning language forms, developing mental associations, and acquiring speech habits in the abstract, or, to use a modern term, the emphasis on the acquisition of skills, independent of communication in society, prevailed until the most recent times and in many ways is still dominant today.”

All learners could not benefit from teaching/learning through Direct Method. The expression of Bruton, J. B. (1958), found in Khalique, M. A. (1994), is a very strong proof of what has been said in this regard when Bruton, J. B. says, “Only the clever child can be profited by this method.” Menon, K. N. and Patel, M. S. (1964), pointed out more demerits of Direct Method when they say that the Direct Method “failed to yield the expected dividends in terms of the children’s progress.” The most crucial reason for the limitation of the Direct Method is that it can be considered as a very demanding method for the ordinary teacher. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2002), rightly remark, “It needed proficient teachers and mimicked L1 learning, but did not consider the differences between L1 and L2 acquisition.”

Some of the main demerits of these methods, as pointed out by Pahuja, N. P. (1995), are as follows: “it promotes the oral aspect of language learning and ignores reading and writing aspects, it is a very laborious method on the part of the teacher because the teacher has to spend a lot of time for the preparation of the lesson. Many times,

it becomes quite difficult to bring out word meaning and the child's experience together. This method gives less importance to systematic written work and reading skill. This method makes only an aural-oral appeal. Much time is consumed in creating life situations. It is an expensive method as a lot of audio-visual aids are needed."

Another limitation of this method in opinion of Verghese, C. Paul (1989), "arises from its neglect of the language skills like writing and reading because of overemphasis on oral work. This method practically ignores the study of grammar, this is not desirable because the knowledge of grammar is useful to the students to correct errors and strengthen language habits." Wyatt, M. S. H. and Thompson, H. G. (1964), also have, negatively, commented on the limited contribution of this method to writing and reading skills by saying that this method "gives insufficient attention to reading and written work. There is not enough writing nor enough progress in the type of writing. There is not enough reading."

Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, J. C. (1983), have their negative comment on this method. They say, "unfortunately gradation and sequence of materials were not based on realistic spoken speech, and some of the materials used in direct method classes have remained as classic examples of artificially constructed sentences."

Commenting on the limitations of this method Scott, D. H. (1946), remarks: "The clever youngster thrives on the direct method by defeating it." It means that

the mother-tongue equivalents of words may not be used by the teacher, but may always be in the learner's mind, and the learner does not exclude them from his own mind. In other words, learning a foreign language can't be similar to acquiring the mother tongue. That is why the Direct Method appears to have failed in foreign language teaching/learning context. In fact, the Direct Method failed in many learning situations where the target language was a foreign language. The reasons of this failure given by Kulkarni, A. D. (1972), are as follows: "The Direct Method ignored the fact that all pupils are not linguistically minded, the classes are large, the text books are not graded, a vast majority of English teachers do not have sufficient command of the language and the ability to use the method effectively." Moreover, it is difficult, if not impossible, to assimilate the process of a child acquiring its own mother tongue and create a situation similar to it in second/foreign teaching/learning situations. In other words, the adherents of this method neglected the fact that the creation of such an atmosphere is not an easy task for a teacher in foreign language context. In fact, scarcity of qualified teachers in foreign language teaching context, who have real command over the target language and adequate training to practice the in DM, contributed to its failure in many parts of the world. Advocates of DM lost sight of the fact that in learning a second/foreign language, matured learners are not like children who pick up the mother tongue under

home surroundings. They overlooked the fact that the mature mind is capable of analyzing, concentrating, observing, memorizing, etc. It possesses many qualities which are still underdeveloped in a child. In learning a foreign language these important attributes must be taken into consideration. The supporters of this method overlooked these facts related to the learning of language and tried to fabricate language acquiring situations in second/foreign language learning context.

Thus, the demerits of DM can be enumerated as follows:

- This method is difficult to be implemented by ordinary and unqualified teachers. Only highly qualified and expert teachers can make use of it.
- As with this method words, phrases, sentences and abstract objects and ideas are explained through the target language only or represented by suitable material, therefore, ordinary learners, particularly in foreign language learning context, cannot grasp it as they are not explained in their own mother tongue.
- The Direct Method is not suitable for crowded classes which is a common phenomenon in backward teaching/learning contexts.
- In Direct Method, there is over-emphasis on oral work and speech whereas writing activity is neglected and not given due attention. Though the learners may reach the level of speaking the target language fluently, but

their writing skill remains loaded with grammatical mistakes.

- Direct Method does not give sufficient attention to teaching the grammar of the target language.
- Direct Method does not give sufficient attention to reading activity.
- Many of the teaching activities require audio-visual aids. This may not always be available in economically poor teaching/learning situations.
- The classroom atmosphere created by DM is unreal and not conducive to the teaching of a foreign language through this method.

The Situational Approach

Situational Language Teaching (SLT) is an approach developed by British applied linguists. It has its origin in the British applied linguistics of the 1920s and 1930s, represented by Palmer and Hornby. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), “The origins of this approach began with the work of British applied linguists in the 1920s and 1930s. Two of the leaders in this movement were Harold Palmer and A. S. Hornby, two of the most prominent figures in British twentieth-century language teaching. Both were familiar with the work of such linguists as Otto Jespersen and Daniel Jones, as well as with the Direct Method. What they attempted was to develop a more scientific foundation for an oral approach to teaching English than was evidenced in the Direct Method. The result was a systematic study of the principles and procedures that could be applied to the selection and organization of the content of a language course.” It was the first attempt to apply a scientific foundation to FLT and was dominant from the 1930s to the 1960s.

The Situational Approach (SA) is also called Oral Approach (OA). In the 1960s this approach was referred

to as the Situational Approach due to a bigger emphasis on the presentation and practice of language situationally. It was a development of the earlier Direct Method. It was advocated by Alexander, L. G.; a British textbook writer, along with Gloria Tate and Pittman, G. A. who published, for worldwide use in 1965, the series of 'SITUATIONAL ENGLISH'. Hornby, A. S. used the term 'Situational Approach' in the title for influential series of articles published in English Language Teaching came into common usage.

Many British linguists had emphasized the close relationship between the structure of language, the context and the situations in which language is used. British linguists like Firth, J. R. (1957), followed by Halliday, M. A. K. (1964), develop powerful views of language in which meaning, context and situations were given a prominent place. According to Halliday M. A. K., McIntosh A. and Strevens P. (1964), "The emphasis now is on the description of language activity as a part of the whole complex of events which, together with the participants and relevant objects, make up actual situations."

The main difference with the American structuralism lies in the British notion of 'situation' and purpose (rooted in Firth and Halliday's notions of meaning,

context and situation), clarified by Pittman, G. A. (cited by Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986): “Our principal classroom activity in the teaching of English structure will be the oral practice of structures. This oral practice of controlled sentence patterns should be given in situations designed to give the greatest amount of practice in English speech to the pupil.”

Assumptions of the Situational Approach

Like the Direct Method, the Situational Approach also seems to derive its assumptions from the way the child acquires his own mother-tongue; that is by observing its actual use in day-to-day situations. Thus, it assumes that a second/foreign language also could be learnt in the same way. According to Pahuja, N. P. (1995), in this Approach, “English is basically taught in the same way in which the child learns his own mother tongue.”

The Situational Approach believes that language teaching in the classroom should begin with the spoken language and the new language points must be introduced and practiced situationally and contextually. According to Pittman, G. A. (1963), “Before our pupils read new structures and new vocabulary, we shall teach orally both the new structures and the new vocabulary.” The Situational Approach believes that general-service vocabulary should be introduced along with simple grammatical forms before the complex ones so as to make

the learner grasp and establish a language foundation within himself/herself. Reading and writing activities must be introduced only after a sufficient grammatical basis has been established by the learner.

The Situational Approach believes that the action chains, verities and sequence of activities to present the meaning of new words, content words or action words are essential to facilitate the process of understanding and learning the target language. The action chains are essential as they contribute to the formation of direct associations between the situation in which the language is uttered, the relation with meaning, the intention of the speaker, the activity associated with the language context, etc. Words, phrases and structures are also needed to express the action chain and provide meaning to the language in context. Teaching should be practical and situational so as to expel the sense of monotony and dullness from the classroom. Repetition is also essential, but it should depend on variety and simplicity.

Thus, the Situational Approach seems to have foretold some of what scholars like Krashen, S. D. said later on in the second half of the 20th century. Krashen, S. D. has later on observed that language acquisition is a matter of habit formation and situational use of the language in and outside the classroom would definitely help develop this habit formation.

Features of the Situational Approach

As the name indicates; the Situational Approach depends solely on creating situations to present the teaching items and inspire the learner to repeat the model structures presented situationally by the teacher and then learn them. In fact, the theory which acknowledges that structures must be linked to situations in which they could be used gave situational language teaching one of its distinctive features.

However, the most important aspect which was emphasized in the Situational Approach and gave it an important feature was the role of vocabulary in the process of learning the target language. As vocabulary is one of the most important aspects of foreign language learning, the Situational Approach considers it as the main tools of mastering reading skill and enhancing the comprehension skill in the learner of the target language. This led to the development of principles of vocabulary control which had a major and practical impact on the teaching/learning of foreign languages all over the world. Consequently, Harold Palmer, Michael West and other specialists produced distinct guides to the vocabulary needed for teaching English as a foreign language.

Another important aspect which was emphasized in this approach was the emphasis on reading skills. Reading is considered as a source of reinforcing the situational language which is presented contextually. The Situational Approach provides also great opportunities to

the learners to use the target language for spoken and written purposes.

The main features of the Situational Approach can be enumerated as follows:

- The learner is expected to make use of the language he/she learnt in the classroom in real-life situations; outside the classroom.
- Accuracy in pronunciation and grammar of the target language are highly emphasized and hence errors are to be avoided.
- Like the Direct Method, the Situational Language Approach adopts an inductive approach to the process of teaching the grammar of the target language.
- The learners are required to listen to the teacher carefully, repeat what the model language presented to them by the teacher and then respond to the questions asked by the teacher.
- The teacher is expected to be qualified, experienced and a skillful manipulator of the target language and the course in general by means of using questions, commands and other clues so as to elicit correct answers and sentences from learners and make them active participants in the process of learning.
- The meaning of words, phrase and structures is explained neither through the mother tongue of the learner nor through the target language being learned, but it shall be induced from the way the form is presented situationally and used in a situation and context.

Characteristics of the Situational Approach

The main characteristics of this Approach are given by Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), as follows:

- Speech is the basis of language teaching.
- New language items and vocabulary items are presented orally before they are presented in the written form.
- The language items which are commonly used by native speakers in their day-to-day language are selected for teaching.
- The items are also graded according to their usefulness, frequency and teachability.
- The language items selected are presented and practised in meaningful situations.
- Vocabulary items are selected with reference to the general service list.
- Reading and writing are based on items which have already been introduced and practiced orally.

Thus, the main characteristics of this approach may be enumerated as follows:

- In Situational Approach, the textbook and the visual materials are very important. Therefore, suitable authentic materials are used to form appropriate situations that establish the meaning of the language in the mind of the learner easily. The material is organized structurally in sentence patterns, gradually sequenced.
- Correct pronunciation and grammar are considered crucial. Therefore, oral language comes first, then written language

- Learners avoid errors.
- As the vocabulary and structures are considered very important, the teacher puts the new words and structures in context and present them situationally in the class-room.
- Learners are expected to deduce word meaning from context, without translations or explanations in the mother tongue.
- Several opportunities are provided for the learners to connect and associate the meanings of new words with suitable situations so as to understand their meanings.
- The teacher is the model who creates the situation and teaches through questioning and eliciting answers from the learners.
- A number of examples are presented situationally in a short period to expand the listening comprehension skill of the learner.
- Grammar is learnt by an inductive process. It is graded from simple to more complex forms. Grammatical structures are learnt with oral procedures, repetitions, substitutions, drills and reading aloud.
- Constant repetition is always emphasized so as to reinforce the meaning of the language items taught situationally to the learners and foster their comprehension of the target language.
- The teacher asks numerous questions regarding created situation and he/she himself/herself answers them so as to provide the model language to the learner.

- The teacher's chain of actions should be unbroken in order to monopolize the attention of the learner and foster his focus on what is being taught.
- Teacher's actions are not silent. He/she constantly talks about his/her activities, asks questions and answers them by himself/herself.

Teaching Techniques of the Situational Approach

The Situational Approach teaches the practical command over the four skills of language and makes the learner skillful in them. However, the skills are approached through teaching and presenting structures orally and situationally. According to Pittman, G. A. (1966), "Before our pupils read new structures and new vocabulary, we shall teach orally both the new structures and the new vocabulary." It means that the structures and vocabulary should be taught situationally. Pittman, G. A. (1966), goes on to say, "Our method will...be situational. The situation will be controlled carefully to teach the new language material ... in such a way that there can be no doubt in the learner's mind of the meaning of what he hears.... almost all the vocabulary and structures taught in the first four or-five years and even later can be placed in situations in which the meaning is quite clear."

The Situational Approach employs the following techniques to accomplish a successful teaching/learning:

Attention and Interest of the Learners

The Situational Approach believes that both, remembering and forgetting of a thing taught to the learner depend, mainly, upon the amount of attention given to it while it was being taught. Similarly, the amount of learning and retention of the learnt material depends solely on the amount of attention and interest of the learners during its presentation. Therefore, interest and attention are crucial factors in the process of learning and fostering of learning. According to McDougall, W. (1949), "Interest is the latent attention and attention is interest in action." Indicating the importance of creating interest, Ross, J. S. (1951), says, "A thing that interests us is just something that concerns us or matters to us." It means that if no interest is aroused in the learner, his/her attention will, definitely, be absent or low and consequently the quantum of learning will be affected. Therefore, the teacher has to make a maximum use of whatever attracts the attention and interest of the learner so as to expel the sense of monotony and dullness from the classroom and involve the learners actively in the process of learning.

Teacher's Resourcefulness, Creativity and Innovativeness

The Situational Approach makes a great demand upon the teacher who is supposed to be highly qualified and experienced. The teacher must also be resourceful, creative, innovative and active. He/She shall

have ready inventions and new things in language to attract the learners, make them involved in learning and enable them to grasp what is taught. By his/her resourcefulness, creativity and innovativeness, the teacher attracts the attention of the learners, arouses their interest and fosters their retention of the learned information. Hence, classroom activity must be as lively and interesting as it may be possible to make the learner involved in the actual learning process.

The Action-chains

In the Situational Approach, there must be action-chains and verities of sequences of activities and not isolated actions. Their purpose of action-chains and verities of sequences of activities is to arise the learners' attention. They are employed creatively and innovatively to present the meaning of new words, phrases, content words, action words, etc. Words, phrases and constructions are also used to express the situation and be part of those action-chains. Moreover, the action chains chosen for the teaching in the classroom should be continuous, unbroken, practical, situational, contextual and innovative so as to make the attention of the learners remain always aroused and get them involved in learning and grasping the material which is being taught to them. Simple action chains in the classroom can be innovatively and creatively designed and expanded in such a way that they turn into interesting and attractive games which

involve learners in the process of learning. These action chains are employed in order to form direct associations between the situations, their relation with the meaning and intention of the speaker, the activity which represents them situationally and contextually, etc. However, it is important that the action chains and the games invented and presented by the teacher should suit the age and mental level of the learners so as to get them involved in the process of learning.

Repetition and Revision

In the Situational Approach, there is also a constant repetition and revision which depends on variety of language and simplicity of presentation. The teacher presents all new words and structures situationally and contextually so as to make their meaning clear to the learner and easy to be grasped. He/She provides a good deal of talking about a specific authentic matter and the learners hear repeatedly the teacher's output of language before being asked to reproduce the language by themselves. The teacher limits the amount of new material in each period to what can be assimilated easily and effectively by the learner.

The teacher constantly revises what he/she presents to the learners. Revision is done again and again so as to reinforce what has been learned by learners. The teacher should be clever enough to know where there is complete comprehension by the learner and where there

is a need for some more revision so as to achieve that level of comprehension. Similarly, the learners get engaged in talking about the actions performed by the teacher and get engaged also in the activities about which they are speaking. They hear and get exposed to ample revision and reproduce the items which have been taught to them.

Situational Use of Actions, Pictures and Objects

In the Situational Approach, the teaching procedures try to assimilate the way the child picks up its own mother-tongue; that is situationally and in real life through the aids of actions, pictures, objects and timely happenings. The teacher teaches the meaning of words, phrases, sentences and clauses in the classroom just like the way the family members express themselves in the mother tongue before the child at home. Moreover, teaching aids supply situations which are outside the class-room such as river, park, beach, etc. Hence, in Situational Approach, teaching various types of aids such as pictures, etc., are essential as every teaching aid can tell a separate story in its own way and in an interesting manner.

Initially, the teacher begins with the familiar objects, relations, activities and situations as they are likely to rouse more interest than a textbook or story-book. Therefore, initially objects found in the class-room and activities are more profitable as teaching aids. Then, the teacher prepares more suitable teaching aids so as to

create further teaching/learning situations that are supported by actions, pictures, objects, etc. in order to present the meaning and use of new words, clauses, phrases and sentences.

Inductive Teaching of Grammar

Like the Direct Method, the Situational Approach also adopts the inductive, implicit and prescriptive approach to the teaching of the grammar of the target language. However, Situational Approach give more importance to the grammar of the target language Citing Palmer, H. (1969), Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), say, “The role of grammar and vocabulary were very important in the Oral Approach. Vocabulary was seen as central component of reading proficiency and grammar was seen as crucial as well since it caused the foreign language learner problems, according to Palmer. He assumed that there was a universal grammar common to all languages. The aim of the teacher was to express this universal grammar in the foreign language. The grammatical structures were classified into sentence patterns which should help students to internalize the rules of the sentence structure of the target language.” Thus, H. Palmer’s view about grammar is very different from the abstract model of grammar advocated by the GTM or the complete negligence of grammar as manifested by the Direct Method. H. Palmer’s view about grammar was based on the assumption that one universal

logic formed the basis of all languages; it is that the teacher's responsibility was to show how each category of the universal grammar was to be expressed in the foreign language. The teacher presents the sentence of which context contains the grammar item to be taught situationally and make the learner grasp and induce the rule from the form which is used and presented in a situation. Thus, it is an implicit and inductive way to teaching the grammar of the target language.

No Use of the Mother-tongue

In the Situational Approach, the teacher does not give the meaning of words, structures or grammar through the mother tongue or the target language. Explanation through the mother tongue or the target language is, therefore, discouraged and avoided. The meaning of words, structures or grammar is to be induced and understood from the way they are used and presented, contextually, in a situation. In other words, the learner is expected to extract the meaning of a particular structure or vocabulary item from the situation in which it is used and presented before him/her. Then, extending structures and vocabulary to new situation facilitates grasping the meaning by generalization and increases learner's skill in avoiding the mother tongue and learning through the target language.

Pronunciation Drills

Learning pronunciation of the target language is an important aspect of the class of the Situational Approach. The teacher provides pronunciation models to the learners and the learners, on their part, have to take them as models. The teacher devotes only one-third of the whole session so as to provide his situational presentations and the other two-thirds of the session may be devoted to pronunciation drills which are the initial stage of developing spelling, reading and writing skills.

Writing Derives from Speech

In Situational Approach, the teacher teaches writing activities that derive from speech within the language already presented in the class and with which the learner is familiar. It means that the Situational Language Teaching employs a situational approach to present new sentence patterns and a drill-based manner of practicing them through writing and make the learner more acquainted with them through writing. The teacher puts also a large number of questions about the created situation and he/she himself/herself answers them and then asks the learners to answer them in writing so as to develop learners' writing skill.

Merits of the Situational Approach

- The Situational Approach is very effective for teaching the target language in lower classes where young children can pick up the target language the way they pick up their own mother tongue.
- The Situational Approach is effective in teaching the language if it is a first or second language and not as a foreign language.
- The Situational Approach provides learners with ample opportunities to listen, repeat and practice new words, phrases, sentences and clauses as the teacher uses them in meaningful situations and gives ample opportunities for revision.
- The Situational Approach keeps the atmosphere in the class active, attractive, innovative and creates interest among the learners and motivates them.

Demerits of the Situational approach

The demerits of the Situational Approach can be enumerated as follows:

- Teachers trained in the older methods do not like to opt for this approach, particularly, in foreign language teaching/learning context. They consider that the older methods, particularly GTM, are safe, have stood the test of time and easy to be used by the ordinary teacher who may not be academically and professionally qualified.

- It may be suitable only for children who are beginners as they may assimilate the way they picked up their own mother tongue and apply the same in learning the target language. However, it is not suitable with learners in higher classes as their intellect tends to be analytical rather than imitative.
- The Situational Approach is slow in developing comprehensive skills in the target language. It means that it does not teach all skills of the language exhaustively, therefore, it fails to prepare pupils for formidable tasks such as public examination, intensive reading, intellectual writing, etc.
- As the Situational Approach does not cover all skills of the target language exhaustively, only some well selected sentence patterns can be taught by this approach.
- The Situational Approach overloads learners with too much repetition and drilling of sentences. Consequently, the procedure of teaching/learning may become, after some time, dull, monotonous and exhaustive.
- The Situational Approach will not work in heavy work-load teaching contexts such as in situation where classes are overcrowded and rigid curriculum requirements and where teacher are either unqualified or do not have sufficient teaching material and aid.
- Text-books followed in the Situational Approach can't be prescribed for foreign language teaching/learning

context as they are suitable if the target language is a first or second language.

- The Situational Approach needs specially and carefully designed textbooks and teaching aids, however, in foreign language teaching/learning context this may not be always available.
- The procedures of the Situational Approach will not suit the teaching of prose, poetry, rapid-readers and composition. Thus, reading activity will not have the varieties of reading material.
- The Situational Approach requires highly qualified and specially trained teachers who must be fluent in the target language they are teaching and they should also be creative and innovative in the process of teaching.

By mid-1960s, it was clear that the Situational Approach had run its course and reached the ending line. According to Howatt, A. R. P. (1984), "There was no future in continuing to pursue the chimera of predicting language on the basis of situational events."

The Substitution Method

The Substitution Method was invented by Palmer, H. E. It is also called ‘Substitution Table Method’ as substitution table is one of the various visual aids used as new teaching technique. It was actually just a teaching technique, but it was adopted by Palmer, H. E. to give it the shape of a complete pedagogic method. He has himself designed more than a hundred substitution tables so that they can be arranged in classes according to their grammatical and other contents.

Definition of the Substitution Method

Substitution means to replace something with another thing. In Substitution Method, it means that multiple sentences could be created on the lines of a model sentence by substituting the words of the same grammatical type provided already in the substitution table.

Palmer, H. E. as quoted in Pahuja, N. P. (1995), defined this method as a “process by which any model sentence may be multiplied indefinitely by substituting for any of its words of the same grammatical family and within certain semantic limits.”

Thus, in Substitution Method, words of one sentence are substituted by other words. The model

sentence which contains the word or item that the teacher wants to teach, is used as a framework or a mold. A word, a phrase or an idiom is brought and a sentence is framed making use of it within the original model sentence.

Assumptions and Procedures of SM

The assumption behind the Substitution Method seems to have affinity with that of the Situational Approach. The Substitution Method also assumes that a word can't be learned separately, but situationally and in context. Palmer, H. E. believes that the knowledge of a word separately does not assist learners to have an accurate linguistic skill in the target language. Like the proponents of the Direct Method and Situational Approach, Palmer, H. E. also considers that the unit of teaching should be the complete sentence and not a word. The sentence, as a unit of teaching, takes part to be a practical procedure in the process of teaching as it helps in developing the feeling to language. To achieve this, the words of a model sentence are substituted by other words which are of the same grammatical family of the model sentence. These words should be understood by the learners in order to be able to replace them by other words. Moreover, the model sentence should be grammatically correct so that the substitute words fit into the same grammatical family of the model sentence. Then, repetition and practice of various sentences on the basis of the substitution can help learners develop real

language habits.

For instance, if the teacher wants to teach the use of the adjective 'clever', he may construct many sentences based on the model sentence. The model sentence may be as follow:

Ali is a clever boy.

The sentence after applying substitution table may be as follow:

Fatima is a *clever* girl.

Thus, a model sentence can be made and many sentences can be constructed on the basis of it. In this way, this method can be used to drill new words and new structures indefinitely. It is a process where any model can generate and multiply sentences indefinitely by substituting for any of its words or words groups of the same grammatical family and within certain semantic limits. In other words, the Substitution Method emphasizes on some model sentences that can be multiplied indefinitely by replacing any of its words, word-groups or and units of the identical grammatical family within definite semantic restrictions. As a method, it means a system or a way of teaching the target language by substituting some words of one sentence for other words.

Pahuja, N. P. (1995), explains the procedures in this method as follows:

- The teacher must repeat the model sentence in a natural voice audible to learners.
- The teacher should ask the learners to repeat it; first individually and then together till the learners speak the sentence correctly.
- The teacher corrects the errors of pronunciation, articulation, accent, intonation, etc.
- The teacher writes the model sentence on the black-board and explains the meaning of the sentence with the help of pictures, objects, gestures etc.
- The teacher may use the mother tongue if required.
- The teacher asks the learners to give similar words for one item of the sentence.
- The meaning of these substituted words is also made clear by the teacher with the help of pictures, objects, charts etc.
- After completing the substitution of one word of the sentence, the other words are substituted.
- The teacher uses all the sentences in conversation.
- The teacher writes all the sentences in the form of substitution table and asks learners to copy the substitution table in their note-books.

Merits of the Substitution Method

The main merits of this method as stated by Pahuja, N. P. (1995), are:

- The method is based on the linguistic knowledge, almost a precondition for the teacher.
- Grammar could best be taught inductively using this method.
- Learners also get opportunities to acquire the target language by using it directly.
- There is a moderate use of mother tongue and this relieves the learner of a great burden of compulsorily using the target language.

Substitution Method ensures the formation of the foundation of correct speech habit and oral skill of the target language in the learner. It develops in the learners the basis of the ability to frame their own sentences on the basis of the model sentences in which they have encountered the correct pronunciation, articulation, intonation and fluency displayed by the teacher. It means that the phonetic aspect of the target language is also taken care of in this method. Thus, the method also tries to give an equal handling to all the basic skills of the language.

In fact, Substitution Method was an attempt to make improvement upon the Direct Method of teaching. Like the Direct Method, the teacher in this method also lays more emphasize on oral activities in the target language and he/she ignores the mother-tongue of the learner and word for word translation into the mother tongue of the learner.

Demerits of the Substitution Method

It can be said that Substitution Method was popular only as a procedure of teaching that facilitated some aspects of teaching techniques. Though the Substitution Method enables the learner to be linguistically creative by recreating many sentences from the model sentence, however, learning a foreign language can't be confined to such limited and controlled activities which do not cover many aspects of foreign language learning process. Moreover, true and real creativity and innovativeness in the target language can't be achieved through this method.

Dr. West's New Method

The New Method was evolved by Dr. Michael West, the noted British educator, who taught English in India for several years. Dr. Michael West was well aware of the English language teaching situation in foreign language teaching/learning contexts. He was not nursing the same unachievable ambitions of the proponents of the Direct Methods, Natural Methods, etc. He considered that, in foreign language learning context, the reading skill was more important than the speaking skills.

The West's Method was born in a longitudinal study of the bilingual needs of an Indian learner. The study earned its author a doctoral degree at Oxford University. It led to the common understanding that the average child in a foreign language context needed English mainly as the language of knowledge which was best achieved by becoming a proficient reader. There were three reasons that led to the formation of such a conclusion to which West reached during working in the Indian context:

- a. English was the pre-eminent language of science and technology whereas most Indian languages had seldom been used as vehicles of modern knowledge.
- b. The average child would not need English for

expressing either personal or on-the-job needs.

c. Learning to read demanded much less investment of time and resources and moreover it does not require external help or guidance.

Thus, Dr. Michael West found that for foreign learners of English, learning to read English was easier than speaking it. His views resemble with those of Cartledge, H. A. and Baly, T. J. C. (1965), who say, “Of the four skills involved in language learning-listening, speaking, reading and writing-the one which is likely to be the most useful for students of a foreign language is reading... can go on improving their knowledge of it indefinitely.”

Dr. Michael, West (1960), is of the view that “reading a language is by far the shortest road to learning to speak and write it.” He believed that, “The initial stage of learning a foreign language should, we believe, be to learn to read it-even in the case of the student who aims at complete mastery (of reading, writing and speech).”

Thus, Dr. Michael, West recommended an emphasis on reading not only because he regarded it as the most useful skill to acquire in a foreign language learning situation, but also because, as Stern, H. H. (1983), points out, “it was the easiest skill with the greatest surrender value for the student in the early stages of language learning.” Stern, H. H. (1983), adds, “The reading method was a theory of language teaching which deliberately restricted the goal of language instruction to

one of practical attainable utility.”

Dr. Michael West’s book ‘Bilingualism’ contains several observations. Dr. Michael West, as quoted in Yardi, V. V. (1994), observes, “In the typical case the first language is the vehicle of thoughts about the home life and perhaps of the literature expressive of emotions and ideas connected with the home; while the second language is a vehicle of communication for matters of government, commerce, industry, scientific thought and higher culture generally. There may be a third language which is a medium of communication for international relations and higher education, and fourth necessary for the religion and ancient culture of the people.”

Assumptions of the Reading Method

Dr. Michael West believed that teaching reading skill in English was easier than teaching speaking skill. He believed also that foreign learners needed English for reading comprehension. Therefore, it was no use emphasizing speaking as the first skill. In Dr. Michael West’s view, as cited by Kripa, K. Gautam (1988), “plenty of exercises in reading comprehension would make for later progress in speech and writing.” In the words of Dr. Michael West, as quoted by Pahuja, N. P. (1995), “The bilingual child does not so much need to speak his second language (English) but rather to read it.”

It, therefore, becomes clear that Dr. Michael West laid more emphasis on reading skill. Therefore, he

designed special type of books, popularly known as 'Readers' and 'Rapid Readers'. In fact, Dr. Michael, West compilation of the 'New Method Readers' paved the way towards a method based primarily on reading and it came to be known as 'The Reading Method.' Thus, to prove the correctness of his assumptions, Dr. Michael, West prepared a series of readers containing interesting reading materials with graded vocabulary. The aim of the series was to awaken in the learners the desire to read more and more.

Kulkarni, A. D. (1972), explains that "Dr. West provided a series of readers containing interesting reading with controlled vocabulary. He kept the size of the vocabulary as small as possible and distributed new words evenly to facilitate reading with understanding by reducing the learning burden and the difficulty level. His vocabulary includes a large proportion of words occurring most frequently in normal reading matter of a non-technical nature. When a word is introduced for the first time, it is repeated a certain number of times, so that the reader becomes familiar with it. For testing the efficiency of reading, tests in the comprehension are set. Extensive use of pictures is made to explain the linguistic material. The use of the mother tongue is permitted. The linguistic material is not presented according to any clearly defined grammatical plan as the primary object of Reader is not assimilation of language. The order of four fundamental linguistic skills as given by Dr. West is as follows: (i) to

read English. (ii) To write it. (iii) To speak it. (iv) To understand it when spoken.”

Features of the Reading Method

The development of the Reading Method introduced some new features into the English language teaching field. Some special features of these readers, according to Pahuja, N. P. (1995), are:

- The vocabulary is non-technical.
- The subject-matter in the readers was arranged to facilitating later reading during the adult life.
- The new words and phrases were evenly distributed over the pages in the books to facilitate reading with understanding.
- The new words got repeated in order to make the reader familiar with them.
- The subject-matter was explained with the help of pictures.
- Mother tongue was frequently used.
- Grammatical rules are not explained.

In fact, Dr. Michael, West’s Reading Series gave rise to the idea of grading vocabulary items to foster reading skill in the learner of foreign language. The idea of vocabulary-grading led to the creation of graded readers which became the basis of graded readers produced by publishing companies all over the world. It supported the notion that the techniques to teach one skill of language; namely, reading skill, could be foreseen and

developed comprehensively and taught effectively. Consequently, the concept of extensive or rapid reading in a foreign language was encouraged so as to develop the comprehension skill of the learner.

Merits of the Reading Method

Assessing this method Stern, H. H. (1983), asserts, “This method grew out of practical educational considerations, not from a shift in linguistic or psychological theory. ... It introduced into language teaching some important new elements as:

- (a) The possibility of devising techniques of language learning geared to specific purposes, in this case the reading objective;
- (b) The application of vocabulary control to second language texts, as a means of better grading of texts;
- (c) The creation of ‘graded readers’; and
- (d) Thanks to vocabulary control, the introduction of techniques of rapid reading to the foreign language classroom.”

According to Pahuja, N. P. (1995), this method helps in:

- initiating pupil for self-activities in reading because oral reading and silent reading both amount to self-activity.
- developing the power of comprehension.
- facilitating the process of learning English without much stress on phonetics.
- making pupil avoid being over-load with grammatical

rules.

- using the use of mother tongue, at times, makes student feel at home.
- increasing students' vocabulary.

In fact, learning the skill of reading English is easy and not affected very much by various defects in the teaching contexts. Thus, the merits of Dr. Michael, West New Method can be enumerated as follows:

- It develops the reading skill of the learner which is considered to be an essential aspect of language learning, specially, in a foreign language teaching context where it seems to be the only self-access option available to the learners.
- It is useful for the lower-grade teacher to follow in the class as it does not demand too much from the teacher; particularly, those teachers who are not fluent in the target language.
- It develops the silent reading skill in the learner and this on its turn helps to develop his/her comprehension skill and fosters the acquired knowledge.
- It develops in the learner the ability to make use of self-access authentic material and thus benefiting from it.
- It supplements the vocabulary stock to the learners and thus expands the ability of the learners in the field of understanding the target language and get the knowledge of his/her specialization through it.
- It serves as a basis for active work in writing and speaking later on.

- It develops the interest of the learner in reading short stories and other material of his/her interest.

Demerits of the Reading Method

Though Dr. Michael, West's New Method introduced into language teaching some important new elements, but it suffered the usual fate of any other methods. It ignored the 'expressive' aspect of the target language while it was emphasizing the 'comprehension'. It also suffered from the shortage of adequately trained teachers who could use it effectively and resourcefully.

Some critics criticized the reading material prepared by the West. Kulkarni, A. D. (1972), observes that, "West's Readers (text books) were graded, but were uninteresting." He points out that as the texts were graded, the teacher could not afford to eliminate any lesson or any book. The teacher has to teach the lessons according to their order. He further points out that, "West lays stress on comprehension and cares little for expression."

According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), "The method that came as a reaction against the direct method has several limitations in itself. It pays no attention to oral work, fluency, pronunciation and other active aspects of language, that should not be overlooked at any cost."

Some of the demerits were also pointed out by Vildomec, V. (1963), as quoted by Yardi, V. V. (1994), in

the following words: “This, of course, is a great error, utterly disregarding the experience of any able teacher of modern languages in any good modern European school. It may be psychologically an admissible method with highly educated adults, but certainly not with an average child who should, if possible, hear the foreign words, use them in conversation, see them and write them in one and the same lesson.”

Pahuja, N. P. (1995), pointed out some demerits. They are as follows:

- The method ignores three aspects of language learning, viz understanding, speaking, and writing.
- In the absence of other activities only reading becomes monotonous.
- This method overlooks some sub-conscious efforts of the learner to learn a language: hearing, intonation, articulation, comprehension and assimilation.
- In this method the vocabulary is taught without connecting the meaning of word with experience.

Thus, Dr. Michael West’s Method emphasized only the reading comprehension and depended on the bulky text-books which are difficult to be taught and completed during the academic year of the student. Dr. Michael West emphasized on the value of the passive work as an aid to active work, but he ignored the important three basic skills, namely, listening, speaking, and writing. Moreover, Dr. Michael West’s assertion that silent reading is a key to speech and writing is totally

rejected by modern approaches and methods of language learning which considered Dr. Michael West as not true to his remarks which assumes, “Speaking is more difficult than reading. So, students should start learning English by reading.” Modern Approaches and Methods go to the extent of claiming that the ability of speaking is acquired more easily and promptly than that of reading. They claim that learner cannot learn pronunciation through reading books as pronunciation can be learnt only by hearing and speaking the target language. Moreover, grammar is not taught systematically through reading method. Therefore, students fail to write correctly. Mother tongue of the learner is also unnecessarily used in the process of teaching/learning through Reading Method.

The demerits of West’s Reading Method may be enumerated as follows:

- Dr. West has given over-emphasis on developing reading of the learner whereas other skills have been completely neglected.
- Dr. West draws a line of distinction between speaking skill and reading skill and it seems that he was pessimistic about developing the speaking skill of the learner in foreign language teaching/learning context.
- Dr. West’s New Method neglected engaging the learner in oral work which is quite important and useful at the earlier stage in learning the target language.

- The over-emphasis on reading skill fails to sustain the interest of all learners for a long time and makes the teaching of the target language dull and monotonous.
- Dr. West's reading series are difficult to complete during the academic year of the students. Therefore, many useful language materials are dropped.
- As Dr. West's reading series are graded and the vocabulary are in context. Therefore, it is difficult to drop any part or chapter in order to accelerate the completion of the books within the academic year of the learner.
- Dr. West's reading series need a qualified and resourceful teacher who is capable of handling the material creatively and innovatively by deriving various language activities from the material itself and engaging the learners in interacting with new resources derived from the teaching material.

The Structural Approach

The Structural Approach (StA) is the outcome of the extensive researches which have been carried out in the field of English as a foreign language. The 1920s and 1930s witnessed the movement of introducing a more standardized methodology in language teaching by the most prominent applied linguists of that time; Palmer, H. and Hornby, A. S. who were the leaders of this movement. That movement reached its peak by the introduction of the Structural Approach (SA) in 1950s. The Structural Approach is also known as the Aural-Oral Approach. Pahuja, N. P. (1995), considers the Structural Approach as synonymous to the Aural-Oral Approach. He believes that Structural Approach is a “direct outcome of the efforts and researches done by the British council in Institute of Education, University of London and many others.” The Structural Approach as, Bhat, Sharada V. (1998), asserts, “is definitely an improvement upon the Direct Method, though the techniques and principles are not widely different.”

Meaning of the Structural Approach

According to Brewington, A. (1995), “Structural approach is a scientific study of the

fundamental structures of the English language, their analytical and logical arrangement.” Thus, the advocates of the Structural Approach did not give much importance to the role played by knowledge and intelligence in learning how to use the target language. They, rather, considered learning as an outcome of practice and overt learning of the basic sentence patterns or structures which are considered by them as the essential elements of any language. According to them, definite ideas can be communicated only by putting the words according to the accepted sentence patterns that are based on structures.

According to Kripa, K. Gautam (1988), the term ‘structure’ is referred to the following characteristics:

“a) Elements in a language are linearly produced in a rule governed way.

b) Language samples can be exhaustively described at any structural level of description (phonemic, morphological and syntactic).

c) Linguistic levels are thought of as a system within systems. These sub-systems are pyramidally structured-phonemic systems leading to morphemic systems, and those in turn lead to be higher level systems of phrases, clauses and sentences.” Thus, a structure is a particular way of expressing meaning in language. To quote French, F. G. these structures are “the bones of the English Language.”

Yardi, V. V. (1994), defines the term Structure as an “internal ordering of linguistic items,” and he further

states that “Structures may be defined as devices that we use to make signals, to convey meanings, and indicate relationships.” He adds that although the terms: ‘Structure’ and ‘pattern’ generally used interchangeably, however, they are not completely identical. The former has a linguistic orientation while the latter has a pedagogic orientation. Though Yardi, V. V. distinguishes between the terms ‘Structure’ and ‘Pattern’, however, for Menon, K. N. and Patel, M. S. the basic language patterns are Structures. Bhandari, C. S., et al. (1986), give further explanation by saying that “the structural approach to English is teaching the learner certain selected structures in a certain order.”

For Saroj, Veerkar, et al. (2005), a structure means meaningful words used in a particular order to convey their meaning. They further state that a structure needs to follow the grammatical order. They give five steps that need to be followed by a teacher in presenting a Structure. The steps are: Revision, Presentation, Practice, Reading and Writing.

Objectives of the Structural Approach

According to Menon, K. N. and Patel, M. S. (1964), the objectives of Structural Approach are as follows:

1. To lay the foundation of English by establishing through drill and repetition about 275 graded structures.
2. To enable the children to attain mastery over an

essential vocabulary of about 3,000 root words for active use.

3. To correlate the teaching of grammar and composition with the reading lessons.
4. To teach the four fundamental skills namely understanding, speaking, reading and writing respectively.
5. To lay proper emphasis on the aural oral approach, active methods and the condemnation of formal grammar for its own sake.

Speaking about Structural Approach, Roi, B. C. (2001), states, “The new technique of teaching English as a second language is based on sound linguistic principles, linguistic science considers language learning to be analogous to learning a trade. The method described here (Structural Approach) aims at teaching the pupils the essential tools of the language in the early stages of language learning. The tools can be mastered only by practicing their use.”

Assumptions of the Structural Approach

The Structural Approach is mainly based on some of the theoretical assumptions made by the American Structural Linguists like Leonard Bloomfield, Fries Charles C. and Robert Lado. This movement has special significance for ELT for it was at this point that vocabulary came into prominence. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), considered vocabulary as “one of

the most important aspects of foreign language learning”. In other words, the exponents of the Structural Approach consider that language consists of ‘structures.’ These structures are carefully graded in terms of both meaning and form. According to Vallabi, J. E. (2011), the Structural Approach is based on the assumption that language can be learnt through a “scientific selection and gradation of structures or patterns of sentences or vocabulary.”

This Approach, as Kulkarni, A. D. (1972), says, “emphasizes the teaching and learning of the basic items or materials that constitute the framework of language.” Kulkarni, A. D., asserts that the Structural Approach involves a scientific selection and gradation of the frames or the patterns of the language item into which words are fitted to give meaning and which can be incorporated in devising any method for teaching the target language.

The Structural Approach is based on Structures which have been carefully selected and graded so as to be taught systematically. The vocabulary also is selected and graded and its quantity should be adequate enough to operate the pattern to be taught and learned. Menon, K. N. and Patel, M. S. (1964), describe it as follows: “After careful study and experimental investigation research workers have realized that there are about 275 language patterns which constitute the core of this essential English. These basic language patterns are called Structures. Every Structure embodies important

grammatical points.”

The Structural Approach, as Kripa, K. Gautam (1988), states, “is based on the belief that language consists of ‘structures’ and that the mastery of these structures is more important than the acquisition of vocabulary. Since structure is what is important and unique about a language, early practice should focus on mastery of phonological and grammatical structures rather than on mastery of vocabulary.”

According to Verghese, C. Paul (1989), “a language is best learnt through practice in real situations, this is because of the close relation that exists between experience and expression.” Verghese, C. Paul (1989), further adds that “there are two kinds of situations: real and artificial... Every structure must be encountered and practised in a context of situation.”

The Structural Approach believes in providing opportunities to the learners to hear and speak the target language. These opportunities are provided by a carefully selected, planned and graded reading material that contains the important and essential structures which can be mastered only by practicing their use through intensive practice and drill that is supported by the process of learning procedure which provides multiple opportunities to the learners to use the target language and master all 275 basic structures.

The assumptions of the Structural Approach can be enumerated as follows:

- Language is structured and acts as a set of relationship that is interrelated with each other.
- The functional views of language as a process and analytic investigations carried out on language from such a perspective may prevent further study of language by giving sufficient basis for teaching/learning the language.
- The scholars of the grammar emphasize on study of the structure of a language and at the same time they also expect to observe and discuss the elements of the structure and organizational features of the languages.
- To teach a target language attention and priority are usually given to speech only, hence, teaching a language is essentially considered as teaching speech and the efforts in this regard should pour into this end.
- To learn language, the learner has to get involved in the process of learning the system of the structures.
- Language is considered as a set system of structures. Therefore, the learner has to develop an understanding of structure of language in order to achieve his learning end.
- The basic requirement in the Structural Approach is the concrete presentation of the structures, both, in classroom and in the prescribed textbooks as well.
- To fulfill this condition the target language is used to the maximum and the mother tongue use is reduced to the minimum.

Principles of the Structural Approach

The Structural Approach is based on

structures which have been carefully selected and graded. According to Bhat, Sharada V. (1998), “selection of structure is made on four principles: usefulness, productivity, simplicity, and teachability.” She further adds that: “the structural approach distinguishes two types of structures, productive structures and other structures.”

According to Menon, K. N. and Patel, M. S. (1964), the Structural Approach is based on following principles:

- i) Oral way of teaching English enables the pupils to get mastery over the language skills.
- ii) Foreign language can best be learnt in the same medium.
- iii) Mastery over a structure is more important than mastery over vocabulary.

Sachdev, M. S. (1983), placed the following principles of the Structural Approach:

- i) English through play-way method:

In the structural approach, English is taught through play-way method which promotes the use of natural and pure language and stimulates the pupil's interest in learning a language.

- ii) Action is important and effective:

The structural approach promotes various actions and gestures to achieve the proper meaning of the Structure.

- iii) Selection and Gradation:

Selection and Gradation should be followed by the

teacher in teaching the structures. Thus, the structural approach is based on the sound principles which make the young learner keen, attentive and active in learning English language.

The principles of the Structural Approach can be put as follows:

1. Importance of Speech: In the Structural Approach, speech is given more importance. It is considered as the axis of interest of the Structural Approach and more important than, both, reading and writing. In fact, the Structural Approach considers speech as the basis for learning other skills like reading and writing, etc.
2. Formation of Language Habits: The Structural Approach considers that learning of a language is a matter of habit formation process. Therefore, it offers a lot of drill works, activities and practices to the learners in listening, speaking, reading and writing in order to consolidate the process of learning the target structures.
3. Learner's Activity: In the Structural Approach, learner's activities and practices are emphasized as compared to teacher's activity because learners are expected to be active, however, the best teaching outcome takes place if, both, the teachers and the learners are actively involved in the whole process.
4. Mastery of Structures: In the Structural Approach, more attention is given to the mastery of structures of the target language as compared to the learning of its vocabulary. A structure is taken up as a teaching point.

Then, its listening, speaking, reading and writing practice is provided to the learner, step by step, through aural-oral practice so as to achieve the best results and ensure learning of structures by the learner as it is believed that learning the target structures will lead to effective learning of the language itself.

5. Meaningful Situations: In the Structural Approach, the teacher should be resourceful and innovative. He should create meaningful situations and make his teaching and work interesting so as to enable the learners to learn the structures very well. Meaningful situations can be created by the teacher through facial expressions, dramatization, actions, etc.

6. Teaching one item of language at a time: In the Structural Approach, only one item should be taught at a time so as to enable the learners to grasp it properly. The new structure is taught by employing the vocabulary already known by the learners. The second structure must be taught only after the students have learnt the first structure properly.

Features of the Structural Approach

The two essential features of this approach are: Careful grading of the structures and controlling the vocabulary to be taught. Bruton, J. B. (1958), summarizes the basic assumptions regarding the nature of language and the methods best suited for the presentation of linguistic items. He says: “a) language is primarily a

spoken thing and...therefore, our approach to a foreign language should in a first instance be through its spoken forms, b) ...mastery over the signaling system of a language is more important than detailed knowledge of the forms of the language; c) ...this mastery is best acquired by repetition of the various components of the system in varied forms; d) ... since language arises from situation, the teacher's task is to create meaningful situations from which language will arise easily and naturally; e)... mastery over a given range of structures and confidence in their use are best imparted by concentrating on the teaching of one item at a time; f)...each item must be firmly established orally before pupils encounter it in their textbooks.”

Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (1986), summarizes the following key features of the Structural Approach:

- Dialogue Memorization: Students memorize various dialogues.
- Expansion Drill: The teacher gives a model sentence. Then he/she gives cues to help students expand on it.
- Repetition Drill: Students are asked to repeat the teacher's model.
- Chain Drill: Students ask and answer each other one by one in a circular around the class room.
- Single Slot Substitution Drill: Teacher states a line from the dialogue, and then uses a word or a phrase as a cue to students to substitute it in the sentence at correct place while repeating a line.

- **Multiple Slot Substitution Drill:** Same as the single slot substitution drill, but there are multiple cues to be substituted into the line
- **Transformation Drill:** Teacher provides a sentence that must be turned into something else, for example question must be turned into negative statement etc.
- **Question and Answer Drill:** It helps students to answer questions or ask question quickly.
- **Use of Minimal Pairs:** Using contrastive analysis, teacher selects a pair of words that sound identical except for a single sound that typically poses difficulty for the learner. Students need to pronounce and differentiate the two words.
- **Complete the Dialogue:** Selected words are erased from line in the dialogue and students are asked to find and insert it.
- **Grammar Games:** Various games designed to practice a grammar point in context.

Characteristics of the Structural Approach

Extensive use of oral drill in the classroom is the main characteristics of the Structural Approach. This approach, according to Kulkarni, A. D. (1972), “emphasizes the teaching and learning of the basic items or materials that constitute the framework of a language.” The most fundamental tenet of the Audio-lingual or the Structural Approach, according to Wringe, C. (1976), is that “language is essentially a matter of habit, of several

behaviour, to be drilled until in certain situations certain responses are surely produced as conditioned reflexes.”

Thus, the main characteristics of the Structural Approach can be summarized as follows:

- Structures are taught by innovatively creating the relevant situation through various actions and activities in a situational context.
- A structure can best be learnt when it is practiced in a situational context.
- The practice of a structure, whether written or oral, is given more attention as practice ensures retention of the items being learned and helps the learner to learn a new set of language habits and helps to ingrain the structures in the minds of learners.
- Oral way of teaching is given more attention as it exposes the learners to speech practice.
- Speech practice is given importance as it is considered as the best way to learn other skills of the target language.

Steps of the Structural Approach

Learners are encouraged to be active. They are given opportunities to state facts, answer questions, respond to given situations, greet people, etc. Bhandari, C. S., et al. (1986), say that the teacher should create an appropriate situation to practice the structures and to relate them to their meanings and to build up a vocabulary in which words are used in context. However, the

situation may be created by appropriate actions, pictures, drawing on the blackboard, gestures, etc. According to Peter Hubbard, Hywel Jones, et al. (1983), when presenting a new structural item (or structure), teachers should be trying to achieve two things:

- a. To enable the students to recognize the new structure well enough to be able to produce it themselves (establish the form);
- b. To make absolutely clear the usage of the patterns, so that when the students produce them, prompted by the teacher, they know what they are saying (establish the meaning).

In the article titled, “The Structural Syllabus and Second Language Acquisition”, Ellis, R. (1993), supports the role of the structural syllabus as a means towards ‘gradual mastery’ of implicit second language knowledge. Though he has reservations about the Structural Approach being the complete solution to target language learning, he identifies a role for the structuralists in isolating structures that need to be pushed into the learner’s procedural knowledge. The following steps are useful in teaching grammar or teaching items with structural aspects.

- i) Revision of the pre-stage teaching item so as to make sure that the learners have learnt them.
- ii) Presentation of the new structure by creating various examples and using them in various sentences so as to be sure that the learners have mastered them.

- iii) Practice of the structure already taught in order to establish it properly and effectively in the minds of the learners.
- iv) Reading of the structure to enforce it and make the learner practice it.
- v) Writing of the structure in order to establish it in the mind of the learners.
- vi) Evaluating the achievement of the learners so as to verify or to test their comprehension of the students.

Merits of the Structural Approach

However, the Structural Approach undoubtedly is of great advantages in teaching foreign languages. Without making any exaggerated claims for this approach, it can be said that it is quite effective in the hands of trained and dedicated teachers. Structural Approach has the following merits:

1. The learners remain active participants throughout the teaching-learning process.
2. This approach helps the learners to move forward to acquire fluency in speaking skill in the target language they are learning.
3. The Structural Approach enables the learners to have good command over the target language.
4. The Structural Approach develops language creativity and innovativeness in the learners. They become capable of thinking and creating a large number of sentences of similar types.

5. The learners understand the subject matter properly as teaching creates meaningful practices and situations.
6. The learners retain the subject matter in their minds for a longer time as they learnt it through meaningful practices and situations.
7. Learning takes place in a natural way because the learners have listening and speaking practice first followed by reading and writing practice.
8. The Structural Approach helps the learners to have good pronunciation because there is an immediate correction by the teacher of any mistake committed by the learners.
9. Language learning becomes a habit with the learner. Consequently, the learner speaks and writes without any stress or strain.
10. Different skills of the language, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing are equally emphasized.
11. The Structural Approach helps all learners to learn language well. Even the slow and backward learners gain progress.
12. The Structural Approach makes the intelligent learners active in the process of learning.
13. The principles of the Structural Approach are very sound as they are helpful in the process of teaching-learning the target language.

Demerits of the Structural Approach

The Structural Approach also has had its

own limitations. Inadequate teacher-training in foreign language teaching context has been one of the main causes of the setback of the Structural Approach. The most notable limitation of the Structural Approach as Wringe, C. (1976), has put it is “the failure to take account of the relationship between linguistic form and meaning.” Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), list some of the limitations of the Structural Approach as follows:

- Sentences are not learnt always by imitation and repetition but they generate from learners underlying competence. The Structural Approach minimizes language learning to the practice of limited sentence patterns and curbs the working of human competence.
- The Structural Approach does not encourage learner centered teaching.
- The Structural Approach is a discrete point teaching where structures are presented in isolation and not in appropriate context.
- The Structural approach helps students acquire linguistic competence. It teaches usage and not real use. It helps the learner in acquiring mechanical language behavior only.

Yardi, V. V. (1994), finds out one main inadequacy with this approach. He considers that structures alone “don’t help to develop ‘communicative competence.’” He further states that “the structural approach may help in making correct sentences, it fails in helping the learner to make correct utterances.”

Thus, the main demerits of the SA can be enumerated as follows:

1. In the Structural Approach, learners get a lot of practices and intensive drilling of structures. This might make the process of learning burdened, dull and mechanical, particularly, for the less intelligent, slow and backward learners.
2. The Structural Approach requires highly qualified and experienced teachers otherwise the task of teaching through this approach would be difficult or almost impossible for the unqualified and inexperienced teachers.
3. The Structural Approach requires structurally graded teaching material and thus the teaching material is closely linked with each other that nothing can be dropped from the process of teaching even if the academic year was not sufficient.
4. The structures are many and it is not an easy task to have mastery over all the structures within limited times of the classes and the short academic year.

The Structural-Oral-Situational Approach (S-O-S)

This approach, popularly known as the Structural-Oral-Situational Approach, came as an alternative to the Direct Method. Prominent names associated with the structural/oral/situational trends of language teaching are Fries Charles C., Harold Palmer and Hornby A. S. Harold, Palmer, as cited by Frisby, A. W. (1957), says, there are three processes in learning a language: Receiving the knowledge or materials, fixing it in the memory by repetition and using it in actual practice until it becomes a personal skill.

The Structural and the Oral were used together with the Situational Approach to evolve another approach which is popularly known as the Structural-Oral-Situational Approach. It was a major innovation in the field of teaching English which was introduced in India between 1955 and 1965. It is the result of the efforts of Regional Institute of English in Bangalore in the field of ELT. This institute has used the term 'S-O-S' (Structural-Oral-Situational) to refer to the implementation of the new pedagogic principles.

This Approach got well established by 1975. According to Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), "This is yet another approach that goes hand in hand with the Structural-Oral-Approach; namely Situational

Approach.”

The Theory Underlying S-O-S Approach

The Structural-Oral-Situational Approach viewed language as structurally related elements for encoding the meaning of the language. The elements are: phonemes, morphemes, words, structures and sentence types. It presents the new language items such as words, phrases, sentences, clauses, stories, events, etc. in meaningful situations so as to make the input comprehensible for the learner of the target language. It presents and practices carefully selected and graded grammatical structures in effective and meaningful situations to make the learner decipher the rule prescriptively, implicitly and inductively. The presentation and practices are initially done through speech and later on through reading and writing. Thus, the situational use of the language is the sole aim of this approach.

According to Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), the theory underlying this approach is that language exists in situations and used according to the needs of the situation. It cannot be used in vacuum. Specific items of language would be preselected for any teaching unit and practiced in contexts and situations which suited them.

Influenced by H. Palmer’s thinking, S-O-S pedagogy has aimed to develop in the learner an internal grammatical competence which would manifest itself in

the natural use of grammatically correct sentences that suit the arising context and situation. Thus, S-O-S is a result of the search for procedures of teaching that is suitable for school children and capable of developing their grammatical competence from early stages of learning the language.

According to Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), by using meaningful situations, the use of mother-tongue can be avoided. Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), suggests that these language items should be given in meaningful situations, the learners can deduce the meaning and the context from the situation in which they are used.

Pittman, G. A. (1965), suggests that the situations will be controlled carefully to teach the new language material in such a way that there can be no doubt in the learners' mind regarding the meaning of what he hears.

Prabhu, N. S. (1987), was concerned with the acceptable level of situational appropriacy in students' language use outside the classroom and their grammatical accuracy and therefore he developed a project using the term communicational teaching instead of the most current communicative teaching that discards grammar entirely.

Merits of the S-O-S Approach

- It presents the new language items situationally, contextually and meaningfully. The situational use of the language items is the sole aim of this approach

- It selects, grades and presents language items such as grammatical structures, vocabulary, etc. in effective and meaningful situations.
- It aims at developing the internal grammatical competence of the learners to enable them to make a natural use of grammatically correct sentences that suit the context and situation.
- It aims at comprehensibility of the teaching/learning items.
- It makes maximum employment of repetition and memory to foster learning of the language items by learners.
- It employs all language skills; namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing.

Demerits of the S-O-S Approach

Some doubts were raised on the efficiency of the Structural-Oral-Situational Approach in the process of teaching. Prabhu, N. S. (1987), says that the Structural-Oral-Situational Approach principles “were increasingly being questioned, mainly on the grounds that learners practice situation didn’t ensure that they could make sentences correctly in other contexts, and that, although learners seem to learn their command of language structure at the end of a structurally graded course, lasting several years, was still very unsatisfactory, requires good deal of remedial re-teaching which, in turn, led to similarly unsatisfactory results.”

One of the weak points of the S-O-S teaching procedure is that, in its attempts to present language items meaningfully and situationally, the teacher assumes that the level of all learners' comprehension is proportionate to his effort in presentation and they are benefitting equally from that presentation. However, this is untrue as the learners' level of comprehension differs from each other. Prabhu, N. S. (1987), thinks that the experiment in S-O-S should not be looked on as field trial or pilot study which would lead to a large-scale statutory implementation of the Approach. What teacher does in the classroom is not only determined by the teaching method adopted and followed in the classroom. There are other complex forces that affect the process in varied manner, forms and degrees. They may include teacher behaviour and his/her loyalty to the previous teaching style and his/her ability to adapt to the new teaching approach. There is also teachers' self-image and the extent of his/her communication with the learners and their response to him/her and his/her teaching. It is possible to think of the teacher's sense of plausibility as being engaged in some teaching activities, however, this can't be guaranteed in all teaching activities. However, where the teacher's sense of plausibility is not involved, teaching would be a mere routine and dull process. The teacher's sense of plausibility is likely to be influenced in some way; strengthened, weakened, modified, extended or brought into greater awareness by the experience of

teaching itself. Moreover, the teaching item may soon become over generalized and mechanical for the learners and this may invite the sense of boredom. In addition to that, the teachers are required to do a lot of preparatory works before they enter the class in order to conduct a single session. Finally, in S-O-S less attention was paid to teaching, developing and fostering reading skill.

The Bilingual Method

The Bilingual Method (BL) was evolved by Dodson, C. J. (1963), of Wales. As the name suggests, the method makes use of two languages; namely, the mother tongue and the target language. It assumes that a bilingual person is a person who can switch-over from one language to another easily and speak fluently about any situation in either his own mother tongue or in the target language with equal ease and fluency. Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), described the true bilingual person as “a person who can jump from one language to another easily and talk fluently about any situation in either the mother tongue or the target language with equal ease.”

However, to achieve this end, Bilingual Method does not give a free hand to the mother tongue as it was the case in GTM practices. Rather, it makes a restricted use of the mother tongue of the learner. For example, in Bilingual Method, the mother tongue is not used for word-to-word translation, but it is used to explain the meaning of new words, phrases, idioms, sentences and rules. Moreover, in Bilingual Method, the mother tongue is used only by the teacher and not by the learner. Practice in the classroom is done without the help of the mother-tongue. Even that restricted use of the mother tongue is dropped as the learner progresses in the process of

learning the target language. Thus, it is clear that, in addition to its own characteristics, the Bilingual Method tried to incorporate some aspects of the DM the GTM to evolve an effective language teaching/learning method.

The Bilingual Method differs from the GTM in two main respects:

1. In the Bilingual Method, it is the teacher only who uses the mother tongue and not the pupils. He uses it so as to explain the meanings of new words, phrases, idioms, sentences and rules through it.
2. In the Bilingual Method, learners are given a lot of practice in the drill of sentence patterns and such a practice is not provided in the GTM.

It can be said that Bilingual Method is an intermediate path between two commonly rejected methods, namely; the GTM and the DM. Hence, Bilingual Method can be considered as a recombination of some of the aspects of the DM and the GTM. The Bilingual Method is, in fact, the product of a happy synthesis of the best principles and features present in the other methods. In fact, it has modified the principles of other methods to overcome the objections and criticisms and to suit the objectives of the foreign language teaching/learning. This idea was expressed by Carrol, J. B. (1961), in the following words: “But, then, in these highly advanced times it could hardly be expected that a new method would represent anything more than a new combination of procedures.”

Thus, it is clear that the Bilingual Method was another reaction against the DM which had reacted sharply against the GTM. Dodson, C. J. (1963), found this method useful in teaching a foreign language as his experiments on second language learners through Bilingual Method showed good results. He appears to have opposed the DM which didn't favor the use of mother tongue of the learner in teaching of the target language. He vehemently attacked the DM in the following words: "It is one of the tragedies at present being enacted in some emergent countries, where a major world language is being taught as a second language to young children by the direct method, that if this type of teaching were successful, which by all account it is not, the vernacular would disappear within a few generations. It is only possible to teach a second language by direct method techniques at the expense of the first language, and it is sheer hypocrisy to claim that the final aim of such teaching philosophies is bilingualism. Every aspect of the direct method teaching is directed towards keeping the two languages as far apart as possible, thus destroying the bridge which the learner must continuously cross to and fro if he wishes to be truly bilingual."

Dodson, C. J. (1963), thinks that the DM operated at the expense of the mother tongue, but it utterly failed make the leaner truly fluent in the target language. He considered that the excessive use of the DM to teach the target language and the complete avoiding of the mother

tongue of the learner would result in the complete disappearance of the mother tongue of the learner in future. He goes to the extent of assuming that there is no close relation between the process of acquiring the mother tongue and learning a foreign language. The mother-tongue is learnt by the child in real situation where it connects the meaning of words with its own experiences. The child grasps the situation, forms the concept in its mind, internalize the structure and then speaks its mother-tongue. When the child is in the process of acquiring its mother tongue, the whole language situation and its conceptual load that contains the structure and meaning are presented before it meaningfully, situationally and contextually. The child starts perceiving the situation spontaneously and it gets involved in the process of learning its mother tongue naturally. In the process of doing so, the child possesses various concepts in its mind because it has already experienced and grasped various situations. Therefore, Dodson, C. J. (1963), thinks that it is a waste of time to attempt to recreate or duplicate the same situations and the whole process while teaching the learner a foreign language. He says that the teaching/learning process of a foreign language is facilitated if only the mother tongue equivalents of the target language are given to the pupils without any mechanical attempt to duplicate the situations.

Pahuja, N. P. (1995), considers the Bilingual Method as of 'the recent origin'. He makes it clear that

“in this method two languages, one that is to be learnt and the other, mother tongue, are used.” Explaining the differential use of mother tongue in the Bilingual and Grammar Translation Methods, Pahuja, N. P. (1995), states that “in the Bilingual method teacher only uses the mother tongue for explaining the meaning of difficult words and the student makes use of it. Students are given a lot of practice in the drill of sentence pattern, such pattern is not provided in the Grammar Translation method.”

Aims of the Bilingual Method

According to Dodson, C. J. (1963), the aims of the Bilingual Method are:

- (1) To make the pupil fluent and accurate in the spoken English.
- (2) To make the pupil fluent and accurate in the written expression.
- (3) To prepare the pupil in such a manner that he can achieve true bilingualism.

Assumptions of the Bilingual Method

According to Dodson, C. J. (1963), a new method should have the following assumptions and principles:

- “i) It must be simple.
- ii) It must strike a balance between the spoken and the written word, accuracy and fluency.

- iii) Constant revision of what is taught and learnt.
- iv) A new method must offer a new approach to the application of translation work.
- v) The method must give the teacher an opportunity to promote intercommunication between himself and the individual pupil.
- vi) The method must be sufficiently flexible to cope with various classroom conditions and the pupils' specific and general abilities."

Principles of the Bilingual Method

The apparent principles of this method are that the mother tongue is used and must be used to explain the meaning of new words, phrases, idioms, sentences, grammatical points and rules. However, it is used only during early stages and it is not used for word-to-word translation.

The main principles of the Bilingual Method as stated by Bhat, Sharada V. (1998), are:

- Controlled use of the students' mother-tongue.
- The introduction of reading and writing early in the course of language learning.
- Integration of writing and reading skills.

Characteristics of the Bilingual Method

The main characteristics of the Bilingual Method pointed out by Pahuja, N. P. (1995), are as follows:

- The emphasis is not laid on creating situations as in the Direct Method, but situations are created just by giving the mother tongue equivalents of English words,
- The unit of teaching is a sentence,
- There is a rigorous practice in sentence pattern.
- The use of mother tongue recommended is not exactly like the Translation method.

Thus, the main characteristics of the Bilingual Method may be put as follows:

- The Bilingual Method aims at making the learner an effective bilingual who can speak both the languages easily and fluently.
- Teaching/learning situation is created to give the mother-tongue equivalent of the target language words and not word to word translation as it was done in GTM.
- In the Bilingual Method, the words that have a one-to-one correspondence in both the languages are given preference so as to make the learner benefit from the knowledge s/he acquired in the mother tongue.
- In the Bilingual Method, the use of the mother tongue, particularly, with regard to abstract ideas, facilitates the process of grasping of the items of the target language easily and effectively.
- In the Bilingual Method, the mother tongue is not used by the learner. It is used judiciously by the teacher only and when necessity arises.

- In the Bilingual Method, the unit of teaching is a sentence so as to develop the contextual understanding of the target language by the learner.
- In the Bilingual Method, few vocabulary items are taught at a time so as to avoid overloading the memory of the learner.
- In the Bilingual Method, the new and old vocabulary are contextually and situationally presented to provide exposure to their meaning and usage.
- In the Bilingual Method, a lot of practice is provided to the learner in sentence pattern of the target language to foster the learner's skill in the grammar of the target language.
- In the Bilingual Method, the rule of grammar is not taught separately as it was the case in GTM, but situationally so as to make the learner grasp it contextually.

Teaching Material and Procedures of the BM

The Bilingual Method does not have a set pattern or theory of its own. Therefore, the major aspects of its teaching procedures are borrowed from other methods. Dodson, C. J. (1963), carried out many experiments where he used a great number of different kinds of stimuli. On the basis of his researches, Dodson, C. J. (1963), could conclude that the following combination was the most efficient in the procedures of teaching through the Bilingual Method:

I) Foreign language spoken stimuli to make the learner

attached to the target language which s/he learns.

- 2) Mother tongue equivalent for the acquisition of sentence meaning to make the learner grasp the meaning quickly.
- 3) Picture and other visual aids for the presentation and retention of sentence meaning.
- 4) Availability of foreign language printed word for improved imitation performance and retention of what has been learned in the memory.

Dodson, C. J. (1963), provides the steps of the methodology as follows:

1. Imitation of the basic FL sentences (basic situation).
2. Interpretation of the basic sentences in FL (basic situation).
3. Substitution and extension of FL sentences (extended situation).
4. Independent speaking of sentences (basic and extended situation).
5. Reverse interpretation (optional basic and extended situation).
6. Interpretation of questions.
7. FL questions and answers (basic and extended situations).
8. Normal FL conversation (basic, extended and original situation).

According to Dodson, C. J. (1967), “The teaching materials need not be specially designed for this method. The materials that easily facilitate the adoption of this

method can be selected from the materials that would be available for teaching a language as a second language.”

Yardi, V. V. (1994), considers the items necessary for the Bilingual Method as follows:

- A printed text of the situation to be learnt. This text ought not to be exceeding thirty sentences in length at the secondary level.
- The text has to be linguistically graded and made interesting to the learner.
- Each situation in the text should have a picture strip, not just one composite picture as in the usual text book, representing the development of the content in the text lesson.
- The intention in using the picture strip is not to help the learner acquire the sentence meaning but to retain it.

Merits of the Bilingual Method

According to Mukalel, J. (1998), “the initiation of bilingual method into the teaching of foreign languages has opened up new vistas of knowledge and possibilities in regard to the use of the L1 in foreign language teaching. It is the answer to a far-reaching cry to restore the dignity and potentiality of the learner’s mother tongue which was totally ignored and neglected in the direct method and in the structural approach.”

The views of Sastry, H. N. L. (1970), about the merits of the Bilingual Method can be summarized as follows:

- The Bilingual Method has the positive qualities of both the GTM and the DM.
- The Bilingual Method is easy from the point of view of teaching/learning as the use of mother tongue helps in teaching the target language better. Therefore, teachers in a foreign language teaching context prefer to follow it as it allows a moderate use of mother tongue.
- In the Bilingual Method, situations are created simply by providing the mother-tongue equivalents of the target language words. In this regard, the teacher is the only person who can use the mother-tongue and not the learners and the mother tongue is merely used during the beginning stages and translation or the mother tongue is dropped as pupils proceed in learning the target language. Thus, it has definite benefits which ensure its superiority over the GTM and the DM.
- The Bilingual Method does not require specially trained teachers. Just a qualified teacher of the target language can teach the lesson through this method in a successful manner and even without any much previous organization on the part of the teacher.
- In the Bilingual Method, the teacher does not have the trouble of creating situations for the sake of giving the meanings in the target language as it was the case with the DM or the SA. The Bilingual Method allowed the teacher to use the mother tongue occasionally in the classroom and exonerate him/her of explaining the meanings of words through contextualized presentation.

- The Bilingual Method makes use of the student's knowledge and speech habit already formed during the learning of his/her own mother tongue.
- Though the Bilingual Method allows the use of mother-tongue, but it does not open the whole door to the mother-tongue like the GTM. The Bilingual Method makes use of the mother-tongue by utilizing it in a restricted way and by the teacher only.
- The Bilingual Method establishes a close rapport between the teacher and the learner due to the use of the mother-tongue. Therefore, it improves the attitudes of learners towards learning the target language.
- The Bilingual Method makes teaching/learning interesting by making conversation easier as it is through the use of the mother tongue.
- By using the Bilingual Method, time and energy of the teacher are saved. The time saved in this way may be used to give the students pattern practice.
- Through using the Bilingual Method, the teacher can do justice to the subject up to the satisfaction of the learners and the learners also can easily understand the language and interact with the teacher.
- The Bilingual Method considers all language skills equally important. Therefore, no skill is postponed to a later time.
- The Bilingual Method promotes both fluency and accuracy in the target language. Unlike the DM which pays no attention to the linguistic habits already acquired by

the learner during the process of learning their mother tongue, the Bilingual Method utilizes that ready habit in favor of developing learner's linguistic skills in the target language.

- The Bilingual Method lays a lot of stress on speech. Fluency in language skills is a target in each situation. Thus, it can be said that the Bilingual Method stands somewhere at the midway between the GTM and the DM.
- In the Bilingual method, reading and writing are introduced early in the course of language teaching. Therefore, learners are exposed to them from the beginning. Thus, it can be said that there is integration of speaking and writing/reading skills.
- As sentence is the unit of teaching in the Bilingual Method, a lot of practice is done in sentence structures. It makes the sense of new words, phrases, idioms, sentences and grammatical rules clear. By presenting language items in this way the teacher can prepare the learners to use the new word, phrases, idioms, sentences and grammatical rules in innumerable sentences and in various situations.
- The Bilingual Method does not require any teaching aids.
- The Bilingual Method is appropriate to foreign language teaching/learning context.

Demerits of the Bilingual Method

- As the Bilingual Method at some point between the DM and the GTM, it contains some of the limitations which are nursed by them.
- The Bilingual Method does not follow any set pattern or theory. It rather borrows procedures of teaching from other methods
- Scarcity of highly qualified and experienced teachers who have excellent command over the spoken and written aspect of the target language is the main difficulty to introduce this method effectively in the foreign language teaching context.
- In the hands of an unqualified teacher, the Bilingual Method may degenerate into the old GTM with all its accompanying limitations and defects.

The Oral-Aural or Audiolingual Method

In the first half of the 20th century, there was a revolution in the field of language teaching methodology. The specialized teaching circles started questioning the ability of GTM to enhance the process of teaching a language with all learners and all teaching contexts and therefore aspired for a change. Consequently, Coleman, Algernon (1929), recommended a reading-based approach to foreign language teaching/learning, DM came into existence in the 1930s and West's reading method came into existence in the 1940s.

However, two important developments were emerging to have a stronghold in the field of ELT during the fifties and the sixties of the 20th century. The first development was Situational Language Teaching as manifested in Audio-visual Courses which presented situations via a filmstrip with the related dialogue played on a synchronized tape recorder. The second development was the American Audio-Lingual Method (ALM). Though they had originated outside England, but they did not provoke any radical departure from Palmer-Hornby tradition in Britain.

The revolution of the ALM coincided with World War II. At then, the US was facing a chronic shortage in translators and interpreters. Therefore, the US government moved to find a policy that enables it to recruit personnel who know various foreign languages and who can work as translators, code-room associates and interpreters. By doing so, the Americans wanted some of their people to learn foreign languages like-German, French, Chinese or Japanese very quickly as part of its overall military building-up, mobilization and operations and to enable military personnel to communicate effectively when posted in various countries over the world. Therefore, it was initially called ‘Army Method’. Some American universities were commissioned to develop foreign language learning programmes for military personnel. Consequently, the Army Specialized Training Programme (ASTP) was established in 1942 by American linguists to meet this urgent need. It involved 45 US universities in Army Specialized Training Program to build communicative competence in translators through very intensive language courses focusing on aural/oral skills. The aspiration of the Army Specialized Training Program was that the learner should possess conversation proficiency in foreign languages. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), stated that the programme aspired to make the learners “attain conversational proficiency in variety of foreign languages.”

For the following ten years, the Army Method and

its suitability for use in regular language programmes were discussed. Fries, Charles C. of the University of Michigan, led the way in applying principles from structural linguistics in developing the method and for this reason it has sometimes been referred as the 'Michigan Method.'

However, the Army Specialized Training Programme 'ASTP' lasted only two years, but attracted considerable attention in the popular press and in the academic community. After the war, the Army Method attracted the attention of linguists also. The so-called 'Army Method' of the Second World War became Audio-Lingual Method of the peace time America in 1950s and 1960s. Thus, The Audiolingual Method originated from the Army Specialized Training Program (ASTP), which was initiated during World War II in the United States, possessed elements traceable both to American Structural Approach to language and language learning and theories of psychology.

The Approach is also known as the 'Oral-Aural Method'. The term Aural relates with hearing whereas the term Oral relates with speaking. It advocated aural training first, then pronunciation training, followed by speaking, reading, and writing. Language was identified with speech, and speech was approached through repetition of the structures. Thus, as the name indicates, the Method emphasizes mostly on the skills of listening and speaking. The Method claims that if the above skills

get developed, then it will be easier to develop the other two skills; namely reading and writing. According to Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), this method recommends that the teachers of English should take up pronunciation practice, pattern drills and conversation practice in their classrooms regularly.

By 1960s, Audiolingualism was widespread. It was developed further and enhanced by the arrival of the language laboratory in the 1960s. In fact, in many Audiolingual programmes, the language laboratory was a central feature. It means that the ALM used varieties of teaching aids to consolidate the situational and contextualized presentation of the learning material. The increasing use of Audio-visual aids in target language teaching is part of the employment of language laboratory in teaching the target language.

The Audiolingualism and its Theoretical Roots

The term ‘Audiolingualism’ was coined by Nelson, Brooks in 1964, in the course of highlighting the basic belief of structuralism which presumes that ‘speech is primary.’ In fact, Audio-Lingualism had its theoretical origin in many disciplines and methods. It had its theoretical roots in the DM. It was skill oriented, with a practical emphasis on ‘Oracy.’ Thus, the ALM incorporated many of the features typical of the earlier DM. Like the DM, the only language used during lessons of the ALM is the target language to the exclusion of the

other tongue. The Audio-Lingual Method, according to Thirumalai, M. S. (2002), in some sense, “represents a return to the Direct Method, as its main goal is to develop native-like speaking ability in its learners. Translation and reference to the mother tongue are not permitted.” It means that the mother tongue of the learners and the target language they are learning are two different entities. Therefore, the teacher should keep them apart. As a result, there will be no interference of L1 on the learners’ performance in L2.

Linguistic and Behaviorist Influence on the ALM

The influence of linguistics and psychology contributed to the rise to ‘Oral-Aural’ or Audiolingual Method. The Audio-Lingual Method tried to claim that a language teaching method can be based on rigorous scientific disciplines like linguistics and psychology. In other words, the Audio-Lingual Method adopted some new ideas about language learning coming from the disciplines of descriptive linguistics and behavioral psychology. Behaviorist and linguistics theories influenced the ALM and added to it the concepts of teaching ‘linguistic patterns’ in combination with ‘habit-forming.’ In other words, Audio-Lingual Method added the concepts of teaching ‘linguistic patterns’ in combination with ‘habit-forming.’ It means that Audio-Lingual Method gave attention to the grammatical rules and hence differed from the DM in this regard. However,

explanation of grammatical rules isn't given by the teacher in this method. According to Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), "Students practice a pattern in different contexts and arrive at the analogy between the first and the second language." The teaching materials avoided prescriptive school grammars, passages from literary texts, and classics. Thus, in Audio-Lingual Method, there is a happy combination of structural linguistic theory, contrastive analysis, aural-oral procedures and behaviorist psychology. In fact, the incorporation of the linguistic principles in the 'Aural-Oral' Approach and some learning theories from psychology in the mid of the 20th century led to the emergence of Audiolingualism. According to Brown, H. D. (1997), "This method was one of the first to have its roots firmly grounded in linguistic and psychological theory." which apparently added to its credibility and probably had some influence in the popularity it enjoyed over a long period of time. Thus, the behaviorists' and the structuralists' views provided the building blocks of this method. Hence, Audiolingualism had a scientific basis and therefore it claimed that it has transformed language teaching from mere an art to science. Nunan, D. (1991a), is of the opinion that Audio-Lingual Method "has probably had a greater impact on second and foreign language teaching than any other method. It was, in fact, the first approach which could be said to have developed a 'technology' of teaching and based on 'scientific' principles." The ALM added

credibility and popularity to the linguistic and psychological theory and had also a major influence on other language teaching methods that came later on. Its influence can be seen even today in modern methods and approaches and can be seen today also in major or minor manifestations of language teaching methodology. It, intensively, used the linguistic structures identified in the descriptive analysis of the target language and psychological theories.

The forerunners of the Audiolingual Method are Bloomfield, L. (1933), Fries, Charles C. (1960) and Lado, R. (1964). They greatly influenced this Method. The advocates of the method drew on the experience of the army programmes and the Aural-Oral or Structural Approach developed by Fries, Charles C. and his colleagues and supported it with the insights derived from behaviorist psychology. Thus, the Audio-Lingual Method, convinced a number of prominent linguists of the value of intensive and oral-based approach to learning a language. The linguistic school of structural linguistics which views language as a set of structures and believes in teaching the learner the structural patterns of the language also influenced the ALM.

Thus, principles from behavioural psychology were incorporated in the ALM. In the ALM the new teaching item should be presented in a context, that is, a dialogue or a passage because words have no meaning without context. Rao, K. Venugopal is of the opinion that

language skills are learnt more efficiently if the language items to be learnt are presented in the spoken form before they are seen in the written or printed form. The teacher is a model to be emulated by the learners. They are supposed to imitate his pronunciation, his choice of expression and so on. This kind of thinking introduced mimicry, memorization, and pattern drill into foreign language teaching. Thus, the ALM is based on the psychological principles of the behavioural psychology which believes that language is habit-forming process. Like the behaviourists, this method believes that learning means acquiring proper language habits through repetition of drills through mimicry, memorization, etc. It claims that language habits through repetition would enable learners to have mastery over the target language effectively and efficiently. It claimed also that more practice will lead to more habit formation and that in turn, will lead to better learning. According to Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), this method is also based on the theory of learning proposed by the Behaviorists. "Learning takes place if there is a stimulus and for every stimulus there may be a response. If the response is reinforced properly, learning becomes a habit." Describing ALM from this point of view, Thirumalai, M. S. (2002), says, "L2 learning should be regarded as a mechanistic process of habit formation...Audiolingual learning comprises dialogue memorization and pattern drills, thus, ensuring careful control of responses. None of the drills or patterns

are to be explained, since knowledge of grammatical rules would only obstruct the mechanical formation of habits.” Thus, learners are viewed as organisms that can be directed by skilled training techniques to produce correct responses. Hence, Audio-Lingual Method was extremely influenced by its ‘operant conditioning’ theories. It considered that the linguistic behaviour of the child can change as does its social behaviour through the process of habit forming. Language learning was assumed to involve a chain of stimulus-response-reinforcement; and it was believed that one learnt a language by acquiring a series of stimulus-response chain. It was thought that the way to learn the sentence patterns of the target language was through conditioning; helping learners to respond correctly to stimuli through shaping and reinforcement. Learners could overcome the habits of their mother tongue language and form new habits required to be target language speakers.

In ALM, errors should not be tolerated because they are wrong forms and one should not develop the habit of wrong expressions. According to Skinner, B. F. and Burrhus, F. (1957), the correct responses should be appreciated because it is a positive reinforcement and will lead to success in learning by establishing correct habits. Skinner, B. F., as cited in Bhat, Sharada V. (1998), strongly believes that “a language is a set of habits.” He further adds that, “language is verbal behaviour.” B. F. Skinner’s theory of conditioning is used in the classroom

in the form of drills. Thus, the Audio-Lingual Method utilized the findings of the Behaviorists theories of learning and made use of structuralists' view who considered language as a set of discrete-point grammar series which were connected to form the language.

ALM and Teaching of Target Language Culture

The Audio-Lingual Method came before the apparent appearance of the debate over the teaching of culture while teaching the target language. Therefore, Audio-Lingual Method was not much concerned with the introduction of culture of the target language to the learners. According to Xiao, Long-Fu (2001), "The interest in the social and cultural context of foreign language teaching implied by the method was, to a large extent, overshadowed by the influence from linguistics and the modernisation of language teaching through the language laboratory which encouraged an emphasis still on language form and the speaking of language as a skill." Stern, H. H. (1983), also points out that "while audio-lingualists were not impervious to the cultural aspects of second language instruction, language learning, in the first instance, was viewed as the acquisition of a practical set of communicative skills."

Assumptions and Principles of the Audiolingualism

Another factor that accounted for the method's popularity was the 'quick success' it achieved

in leading some learners towards communicative competence. Audio-Lingual Method believed that the most effective way to create communicative competence in the learners of the target language was to make the learner 'over-learn' the target language through extensive repetition and a variety of elaborate drills.

The Audio-Lingual Method believes that learning a language is habit-forming process. However, it claims that those language 'habits' of the first language would always interfere in the process of learning the target language whereas each language has its own identity. Therefore, the only way to overcome this interference problem is to facilitate the learning of a new set of 'habits' appropriate linguistically to the target language. The Audio-Lingual Method believes that different types of sentences can be learnt best through pattern-practice drills for about fifteen hours with target language speakers and twenty to thirty hours of private study spread over two to three six-week sessions. It means that learners in such courses studied ten hours a day in six-days a week. Consequently, excellent results were often achieved by this method provided that classes are small and learners are highly motivated.

Prator, C. H. (1980), presents assumptions within the framework of ten slogans similar to those Moulton, W. G. (1961) used to characterize the Audiolingual Method. The ten assumptions are as follows:

1. Teaching is more of an art than a science.

2. No methodologist has the whole answer.
3. Try to avoid the pendulum syndrome.
4. Place a high value on practical experimentation without doctrinaire allegiance.
5. Look to various relevant disciplines for insights.
6. View objectives as an overriding consideration.
7. Regard all tested techniques as resources.
8. Attach as much importance to what your students say as how they say it.
9. Let your greatest concern be the needs and motivation of your students.
10. Remember that what is new is not necessarily better.

The assumptions of the Audio-Lingual Method stated by Rivers, W. M. (1991), are as follows:

“(i) Foreign language learning is basically a mechanical process of habit formation.

(ii) Language skills are learned effectively; if items of the foreign language are presented in the spoken form before the written form.

(iii) Analogy provides a better foundation for foreign language learning than analysis.

(iv) The meaning which the words of a language have for the native speaker can be learned only in a matrix of allusions to the culture of the people who speak that language.”

The Audio-Lingual Method believes that one can learn another language in the way one acquires the mother tongue. It believes in the fact that the children learn to

speak before they learn to read or write. Thus, the teaching materials, that are prepared, should be based on the 'primacy of speech.' The Audio-Lingual Method believed on the learner's ability to gain the communicative skills required in everyday discourse that develops the skills of listening and speaking in the target language.

According to Peter Hubbard, Hywel Jones, et al. (1983), the following principles were applied in ALM:

- a. Students first listen; then speak, then read and finally write the language.
- b. The 'grammar' should be presented in the form of model patterns of dialogues. Drilling consisted of forming new utterances on the basis of the original pattern. This was called 'analogues pattern drilling'.
- c. Drilling should follow the stimulus-response-reinforcement scheme. Students should always be rewarded when they responded correctly.
- d. Students should proceed by very easy steps, starting with simple repetition and going on to simple drills, then more complex drills and so on. Ideally the possibility of a student making an error should be avoided altogether.
- e. By repeating the stages of stimulus-response-reinforcement, students would develop correct language habits. Once a habit had been formed, a student could produce examples of the pattern effortlessly and without thinking.

Objectives of the Audio-Lingual Method

In ALM, listening and speaking should get the priority in the teaching/learning efforts. By emphasizing on such a priority, the Audio-Lingual Method aimed to create communicative competence in learners of the target language through intensive language courses focusing on aural/oral skills. It aimed to project the linguistic patterns of the target language which are based on the studies of structural linguists and language learning assumptions of behaviorism into the process of teaching so as to make learner's oral responses automatic and 'habitual'. Thus, the focus is mainly on oral discussion. The idea was that phrases must be repeated orally many times until a kind of pattern is formed and then systematic changes would be carried out to foster the learners' skills in the target language.

Nelson, Brooks (1964), distinguishes between short-range and long-range objectives of an Audiolingual program. Short-range objectives include training in listening comprehension, accurate pronunciation, recognition of speech symbols as graphic signs on the printed page, and ability to reproduce these symbols in writing. Nelson, Brooks (1964), states, "These immediate objectives imply three others: first, control of the structures of sound, form, and order in the new language; second, acquaintance with vocabulary items that bring content into these structures; and third, meaning, in terms of the significance these verbal symbols have for those

who speak the language natively.” According to him, Long-range objectives “must be language as the native speaker uses it...There must be some knowledge of a second language as it is possessed by a true bilingualist.”

Features of and Characteristics the Audiolingualism

Here is a summary of the key features of the Audio-Lingual Method, taken from Brown, H. D. (1994), and adapted from Prator, C. H. and Celce-Murcia, M. (1979):

1. New material is presented to the learner in dialog form.
2. There is dependence on mimicry and memorization of set phrases and over learning them.
3. Structures are sequenced by means of contrastive analysis between the two languages and taught one at a time.
4. Structural patterns are taught by using the repetitive drills.
5. There is little or no grammatical explanation. In other words, grammar is taught by inductive analogy rather than deductive explanation.
6. Vocabulary presentation is strictly limited and learned in context.
7. There is much use of tapes, language labs and other audiovisual aids.
8. Great importance is attached to pronunciation of the target language.
9. Very little and limited use of the mother-tongue by

teachers is permitted.

10. Successful responses by the learner are immediately reinforced.

11. There is a great effort to get students to produce error-free utterances.

12. There is a tendency to manipulate the target language and disregard content.

Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), on her part, summarizes the main features of the Audio-Lingual Method as follows:

“1. The audio-lingual method treated each language skill separately.

2. The skills were taught in the following order: listening -speaking - reading - writing. The first few stages concentrated on listening and speaking skills.

3. The skills of writing and reading were not neglected, but the focus throughout remained on listening and speaking.

4. Dialogues were the main feature of the audio-lingual syllabus, and they were the chief means of presenting language items. They also provided learners an opportunity to practise, mimic and memorize bits of language.

5. Pattern drills were an essential part of this method and used as an important technique for language teaching/learning.

6. The language laboratory was introduced as an important teaching aid. It gave learners an opportunity to mimic a model and memorize language patterns.

7. Like the direct method, the audiolingual method too tried to avoid the use of the mother tongue, though perhaps not so rigidly.”

According to Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, J. C. (1983), the following are some major distinctive features of the Audiolingual Method:

1. Attends to the structure and form of the target language more than to its meaning.
2. Demands memorization of structure-based dialogues.
3. Language items are not necessarily contextualized.
4. Language learning consists of learning structures, sounds or words.
5. Mastery, or over-learning is sought.
6. Drilling is a central technique.
7. Native speaker like pronunciation is sought.
8. Grammatical explanation is avoided.
9. Communicative activities only come after a long process of rigid drills and exercises.
10. The use of the student's native language is forbidden.
11. Translation is forbidden at early levels.
12. Reading and writing are deferred till speech is mastered.
13. The target linguistic system will be learned through the over-teaching of the patterns of the system.
14. Linguistic competence is the desired goal.
15. Varieties of language are recognized, but not emphasized.
16. The sequence of units is determined solely by

principles of linguistic complexity.

17. The teacher controls the learners and prevents them from doing anything that conflicts with the theory.

18. 'Language is habit' so errors must be prevented at all cost.

19. Accuracy, in terms of formal correctness, is the primary goal.

20. Students are expected to interact with the language system, embodied in machines or controlled materials.

21. The teacher is expected to specify the language that students are to use.

22. Intrinsic motivation will spring from an interest in the structure of the language.

An often-quoted summary of the basic tenets of Audio-Lingual Method were formulated by Moulton, William G. (1961). He has stated five important characteristics which form the basis of this method. They are as follows:

“(i) Language is speech, not writing.

(ii) A Language is a set of habits.

(iii) Teach the language, not about the language.

(iv) A language is what its native speakers say, not what someone thinks they ought to say; and

(v) Languages are different.”

Teaching Material and Techniques of the ALM

Audiolingualists demanded a complete transformation of the content of foreign language

curriculum and advocated a return to speech-based teaching material and instruction with the primary objective of oral proficiency and communication. Consequently, they dismissed the study of grammar and literature as goals of foreign language teaching. According to Nelson, Brooks (1964), “A radical transformation is called for a new orientation of procedures is demanded and a thorough house cleaning of methods materials, texts and tests is unavoidable.” Thus, it can be said that the Audio-Lingual was a skill-oriented method with a practical focus is on communication and oral practice. Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), advises that fluency in the oral skills is a prerequisite for teachers of the target language. He asserts that they should control their language in such a way that no sentence falls flat before learners. Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), further advises teachers by saying that they “should be resourceful to make the oral work interesting and meaningful.” Therefore, the teaching material and content reflecting day-today experience was of prime importance for teaching as it provided a wide variety of activities, made extensive use of visuals to help maintain interest and involvement of the learner and provided contextualized language practice in true-to-life situations including dialogue and monitored conversations. Since this method lays stress on habit formation, repetition of drills through mimicry and memorization were very often.

It is clear that Audiolingual Method emphasizes on the ‘listening-speaking-reading-writing’ sequence’. Listening is of major importance as Audiolingual Method believes that learning to speak the target language becomes easier if the learner has sufficient training in listening comprehension. Thus, Audiolingual Method emphasizes that the learner should be exposed to planned listening experiences. According to Allen, H. B. (1965):

“(i) Ear-training facilitates speaking. Articulation is dependent upon hearing sounds accurately...

(ii) Concentration on one skill at a time facilitates learning by reducing the load on the student and by permitting the use of materials and techniques geared to the specific objectives and requirements of each skill.

(iii) When students are required to speak from the outset, the likelihood of errors is increased... where listening comprehension precedes speaking, the students’ initial experience includes more correct responses and more frequent positive reinforcement less comprehension, and more rapid development of confidence in his language learning ability.

(iv) Prematurely listening to his own unauthenticated pronunciation, and to that of other students, may interfere with the students’ discrimination and retention of correct sounds.”

Moreover, Audiolingual Method makes use of a number of many exercises and drills such as repetition drill, chain drill, substitution drill, transformation drill,

question and answer drill, pattern practice, dialogue memorization through extensive mimicry and ‘over-learning’ of language patterns and forms to ensure a careful control of the learners’ responses and make them respond to the stimuli correctly. According to Stern, H. H. (1992), “The effect of audiolingual techniques of rote learning, repetition, imitation, memorization and pattern practice was to minimize the importance of explicit learning strategies in the language learning process.” The techniques used to produce correct language habits in the learners were drills and exercises in oral imitation after listening to teacher’s model and memorizing them. In this regard, a special importance is given to pronunciation. Learners are supposed to imitate teacher’s pronunciation and expressions. Pronunciation practicing is for showing the difference between two words which may be similar in pronunciation. Following the teacher’s model and performing the correct response to a stimulus means that a reward is given and reinforcement takes place. Thus, Audiolingualism shares the emphasis on correct response to grammatical patterns with behaviorist theories of learning which suggest that much learning is the result of habit-formation where performing the correct response to a stimulus means that a reward is given and the constant repetition of this reward makes the response almost automatic and reinforces learning. By rewarding the correct production of the language structures, learners have been conditioned into learning the target language.

In fact, early language laboratory tapes used this procedure with learners who responded to prompts or cues in cue-response drills. Thus, this kind of teaching/learning strategy and procedures resulted in carefully prepared materials in listening activities. The procedure of extracting the correct response and giving reward is referred to as 'conditioning'.

It is clear that the teacher has the central and leading role in the classroom. In fact, the teacher is a model to be emulated by the learners. He remains in full command of the situation, controls and monitors, systematically, all learning activities in the classroom. He engages learners in role-playing activity, enables them to memorize their parts and gives learners dialogue completion exercises.

As Audio-Lingual Method considers that teaching grammatical rules means teaching about the language and not the language itself, very little attention was given to grammar rules. The teacher engages learners in grammar games to enable them to understand it inductively. In this connection, Moulton, William G. (1961), says, "The real goal of instruction was an ability to talk the language and not to talk about it." The grammatical structures were presented through simple situations which shows their contextual usage. Learners move cautiously from simple to more and more linguistically difficult features. Therefore, Audio-Lingual learning teaching made extensive use of structural drilling in which students do

not only repeat or reproduce the same grammatical pattern, but they were also encouraged also to use different words within the pattern so as to acquire not only good language habits, but also a kind of creativity in the language through the use of vocabulary in context.

However, vocabulary teaching was kept to a useful minimum and strictly limited and learned situationally so that the students may concentrate on achieving a firm control over the structures and not the individual and isolated vocabulary item. Memorizing of vocabulary and phrases plays the key role in teaching through Audio-Lingual Method. Audio-Lingual Method assumed that exposure to language itself would lead to vocabulary learning, therefore, no clear method of vocabulary teaching was spelt out. Nevertheless, in its books, the Audio-Lingual Method proposes the use of repetition, memorization and mimicry for the learning and recalling of the foreign words and phrases. The structure items were carefully graded so as to make the learners learn the easy structures first and then move to structures that were more difficult and complex. Contextual presentation of the new teaching items was emphasized whether they were a dialogue or written passage as the Audiolingual Method considered that words have no meaning in isolation and they have to be presented in context. There is also the technique of minimal pairs. The materials provided a wide variety of language activities to help maintain interest and raise the level of students'

motivation.

Some of the teaching procedures of the Audiolingual Method as described in Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (1986), are worth noting. First, the Audiolingual Method also has, as its goal, the development of the ability of learners to use the target language communicatively. However, the teacher believes that the learners need to overlearn the target language so that they can use it automatically without stopping to think. In other words, the learners must form new habits in the target language and overcome the old habits of their mother tongue. Second, the teacher is like an orchestra leader, directing and controlling the language behavior of the learners, who merely imitate either the teacher's model or the model of native speakers on tapes. The learners follow the teacher's directions and respond accurately and rapidly. Third, new vocabulary and structures are presented through dialogues, which are learned through imitation and repetition. The teacher gives positive reinforcement to learners' successful responses. Fourth, grammar is taught inductively. Fifth, most of the interaction, which is initiated by the teacher, is between the teacher and the learners. Sixth, the view of language in this method has been influenced by descriptive linguistics. That is, the language system is seen as comprising different levels - phonological, morphological, and syntactic, each level with its own distinctive patterns. Everyday speech is presented in this method, but with the level of complexity being graded

from simple to complex. Seventh, the emphasis is on the learners acquiring the structural patterns of the target language, with the aural-oral skills receiving the most attention. Finally, only the target language is used in the classroom because the habits of the learners' mother tongue are thought to interfere with the students' attempts to master the target language.

Merits of the ALM

Many pedagogues see some values in this method. In this regard, Chastain, R. K. (1976), writes, "to harvest these values the method must be made more responsive to the students' intellectual needs. The methods of drill and pattern have proved pedagogically very sound. Therefore, the language teacher should devise methods to make the drills more meaningful and interesting bringing in real communicative situations outside the classroom."

Bhat, Sharada V. (1998), has recorded the main strengths of this method as follows: "the teaching materials are more scientifically and systematically prepared than the one-author texts; it teaches a language in a graded manner; the motivation of the students is of a higher degree; the students enjoy learning the target language because the teaching materials are specially designed to interest the students avoiding boring passages from the classes."

Thus, the ALM had some advantages which led to

its spread and success in the 20th century. They can be enumerated as follows:

- It makes a careful preparation and presentation of learning material so as to maximize learning achievement.
- It allots a sufficient time to the process of learning and thus exposure to the target language was amply provided.
- It gives importance to pronunciation and oral-aural practice by means of automatic production of sentences and repetition of the same.
- It emphasizes on speech by using language in context and allowing the learner to get exposed to them.
- It makes a structural description and gradation of sentences and other linguistic utterances necessary for learning so as to facilitate the process of learning.
- It emphasizes on internalization of sentence structures through repetition and inductive generalization, the structural description and gradation of sentence and other linguistic utterances presented to the learners for drill.
- The sizes of the classes are usually small. Thus, each learner gets individual attention from the teacher.
- It has a striking success in short-term language courses.

Demerits of the ALM

Audiolingualism reached its peak in the 1960s and then started failing and declining. According to Stern, H. H. (1983), the failure of ALM can also be traced

to “lack of effectiveness of the techniques in the long run.” Audiolingualism came under criticism on two bases. Its theoretical foundations were attacked as being unsound both in terms of language theory and learning theory. Carroll, J. B. (1966a), wrote, “The audiolingual habit theory which is so prevalent in American foreign language teaching was perhaps fifteen years ago in step with the state of psychological thinking of that time, but it is no longer abreast of recent developments. It is ripe for major revision, particularly in the direction of joining it with some of the better elements of the cognitive code learning theory.”

Excessive care given to prevent occurrence of errors was objected by those who insisted that no one can learn to communicate in a new language if he/she is not allowed to make mistakes in it. Due to overcorrection of learners’ errors, learners’ anxiety levels were always quite high because, as Willis, J. (2004), points out, “the emphasis was on eradication of errors and accurate production of the target forms, not on communication of meanings.”

Valdman, A. (1904), has criticized “the exaggerated emphasis on oral drilling” which characterized Audiolingualism. Decanny, F. R. (1963), also has the following to say about mechanical drilling. He says, “Drills are inherently unnatural, contrived examples of the use of language. Humanising these devices is left to the teacher. Unless the students are

stimulated by variety, novelty, and a quick change of cues, they may be mouthing meaningless sentences and in this unwilling frame of mind no learning takes place.”

Rivers, W. M. (1991), made the following comments with regard to Audiolingualism:

“(i) Learners’ perceptions, motivation, and feelings should be taken into account.

(ii) The emphasis should be shifted from linguistic form to communication in a socio-cultural context.”

Moreover, the MIT (Massachusetts Institute of Technology) linguist Noam, Chomsky criticized Structuralist Approach to language description as well as the behaviorist theory in language learning. Thus, criticizing the roots from which Audiolingualism derived its whole ideas. According to Noam, Chomsky (2002), “Language is not a habit structure. Ordinary linguistic behavior characteristically involves innovation, formation of new sentences and patterns in accordance with rules of great abstractness and intricacy.”

The demerits of ALM can be summarized as follows:

- It depended on Behaviourist assumptions which had been, later on, criticized and refuted.
- Practitioners found that the practical results from Audiolingualism fell short of expectations of theoreticians, teachers and learners.

- The ALM was not teacher-centered. It depended excessively on machine whereas machines and other teaching aids cannot replace teachers.
- The poorly qualified teachers only increase the waste of learners' time and public resources.
- Even if there is a qualified teacher, he is totally autocratic.
- Learners found the experience of studying through Audiolingual procedures to be boring and unsatisfying.
- Audio-Lingual Method did not allow for some individuality which gives chance to variation in the learners' learning styles and speeds.
- The ALM failed to produce long-term communicative skills in the learners. In fact, it proved to be less effective in developing learner's overall communicative ability.
- Audiolingualism only demanded native-like pronunciation which is almost an unrealistic goal, particularly, in the context of foreign language learning.
- Though laboratories may provide a variety of listening materials, but they were not effective enough to foster various language skills of the learners.
- The laboratories give maximum return if they are used by specially trained teachers and well-devised teaching material. Thus, no Audio-Lingual Method can be successful in the absence of a qualified, trained, inventive and resourceful teacher.

- The excessive use of laboratories gave little opportunity for learners to make an actual creative use of the target language.
- As Audiolingualism gave less attention to reading and writing skills, therefore, teachers criticized Audiolingualism for downgrading reading and writing skills.
- Some Learners and teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the absence of implicit grammar explanation.
- The importance given to achieve 'oral accuracy' shows that errors are prohibited.
- Though Audiolingualism aspired to make the learner linguistically creative, however, it provided very little room for developing true creativity which learners would hope to get from the process learning the target language.
- The learners lacked engagement in meaningful language use and had only limited opportunities to use the target language creatively while interacting with the laboratories.
- As Audio-Lingual Method provides very little room for real creativity in the target language, learners were found to be unable to transfer skills learned through Audiolingualism to real communication outside the classroom.
- In Audio-Lingual Method and its accompanying laboratories, learners may achieve some progress and become like well-trained parrots; able to repeat whole utterances perfectly when given a certain stimulus, however, they

were uncertain of the meaning of what they are saying. It means that they are incapable of using their memorized materials in contexts which are different from those in which they have been trained.

- The rigidity of this method is manifested in its abundant memorization and drills that make the whole process not real, but dull and monotonous.
- Since Audio-Lingual Method depended on the automatic patterning of behavior, there was little or no recognition given to any conscious contribution which the individual learner might make in the learning process. In fact, learners were discouraged from becoming initiative in the process of learning situation because they might commit mistakes.
- The use of mother tongue is not tolerated even in foreign language situation and this makes the task of teaching/learning very difficult or almost impossible in foreign language context.

Community Language Learning

Introduction to Community Language Learning

Community Language Learning (CLL) is an approach which has been developed by the late Curran, C. A.; a Roman Catholic priest and a professor of psychology, and his associates in Chicago, in the United States in the late 1970's. He called his language learning approach 'Community Language Learning.' It is called 'community', as opposed to 'individual' learning and thus indicates its humanistic and social dimensions. Curran, C. A. (1976), states that the concept of community refers to group with the task of learning is applied specifically. It has been used in this method because such relationship, as mentioned above, is applied specifically to groups with the task of learning another language. Community Language Learning is a method for teaching the target language at formal and non-formal level. This method is known as a method for learning languages in a community or in groups.

CLL is an unconventional and a holistic method mainly inspired by the humanistic psychology principles that attracted the attention of professional circles in the late 1960's and 1970's. In fact, Curran, C. A. was classified as 'humanistic' with a kind of a religious bent of mind. It seems that Curran, C. A. developed this

concept as he found himself a language learner and experienced the emotional insecurity and helplessness of the lack of knowledge of the target language.

Humanistic Nature of CLL

It is important to know that until the 1960s, language teaching was based mainly on assumptions which were derived from behavioral psychology and structuralism. This type of teaching entailed teaching/learning activities which are based on repetition and habit formation so as to enable learners to produce the language correctly and at the same time adhere to the rule of the language rather than communicating meaningfully and fluently. Then, Audiolingualism era emerged. According to Brown, H. D. (1987), the era of Audiolingualism began to give way to important and innovative methods such as Community Language Learning, Desuggestopedia, The Silent Way, Total Physical Response and the Natural Approach. The methods of this era tended to emphasize the development of human values, growing self-awareness and understanding by developing sensitivity to human feelings and emotions and activating student's involvement in learning. Therefore, many of them were called humanistic methods. According to Diane-Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, M. (2011), in the humanistic approaches, the learner is regarded as a whole person, which means that teachers consider not only their

students' feelings, but also their physical reactions, their instinctive protective reactions and their desire to learn. Humanistic techniques engage the whole person, including the emotions and feelings as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills. Community Language Learning is the name of a method which is oriented on humanistic approach. It is cited as an example of a 'humanistic approach.' Being a humanistic method, CLL consider learners as 'whole persons' with intellects, feelings, instincts, physical responses and desire to learn.

Psycholinguistic Philosophy of CLL

CLL represents an attempt to put the insights gained by modern group psychology into, specifically, in the teaching/learning foreign languages. The theory of language learning and a practical methodology for language teaching can be gathered from the research of Curran, C. A. Curran's application of psychological counseling techniques to learning is known as Counseling-Learning. The educative process of the psychological counseling relationship was considered by Curran, C. A. to have useful insights that can benefit the process of the language learning. Therefore, Community Language Learning represents the use of counseling-learning theory to teach languages. Thus, 'counseling learning' is a non-direct therapy approach which is designed to ease the learners in the process of acquiring the target language. Curran's counseling experience led

him to conclude that the techniques of counseling could be applied to learning in general (this became Counseling-Learning) and to language teaching in particular (Community Language Learning).

Speaking about Curran, C. A. as a counselor, Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), say that Curran was a specialist in counseling and his application of psychological counseling techniques to learning is known as Counseling-Learning and was largely inspired by the renowned master of humanistic psychology, Carl Rogers, therefore, it is sometimes cited as an example of a humanistic approach and derives its primary insights from counseling. In other words, The CLL method's is influenced by the client-centered therapy introduced by Carl Rogers' humanistic psychology. Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages. The CLL method and learner-centred teaching have a lot of things in common. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), Curran, C. A. application of psychological counseling techniques for learning is known as Counseling-Learning. Thus, Community Language Learning represents the use of Counseling-Learning theory to teach languages.

Geetha, Nagarajan (2010), says that CLL encourages teachers to view their students as whole persons and puts their intellect, relationships, feelings, desires, etc., into consideration. Curran, C. A. (1961), considered that the language learning process is not

merely a cognitive process, but also it involves the whole human person. He says that the emotional reactions of those who are struggling with the process of learning a foreign language were similar to the emotional conflicts of a client who is undergoing a counseling process. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), note that these aspects of Curran's learning philosophy address not the psycholinguistic and cognitive processes involved in second language acquisition, but rather the personal commitments that learners need to make before language acquisition processes can operate. The whole process emphasizes eradication of the sense of threat and fear from the heart of the learner. Curran, C. A. explains it as follows: "The threat of being called on to speak a foreign tongue is not only psychological; the whole psychosomatic system is directly involved. This is particularly true if one must speak that language in the presence of others who know it well."

The central core of Curran's educational theory focused on the attempt to, as Curran, C. A. (1972), puts it, "incorporate teachers and learners in a deep relationship of human belonging worth and sharing" where an exchange among equals is going to take place in a context of security and trustworthiness. Therefore, in CLL, the target language teacher and the learners build the intense atmosphere of warmth and security and they support one another during the classroom activity. The teacher, as a counselor, gives advice, assistance and support to the

learners in the process of learning. This kind of security and support in the teaching/learning community is really typical in CLL and opposite of the formal atmosphere which dominates schooling context and other teaching methods. Thus, CLL is a method that understands learners' fear and anxiety in the process of learning, works to allay them and puts the learner on the learning track. It can be said that CLL restructures the relation between the teacher and the rest of learners. To make it clearer, in CLL sharing knowledge becomes a feasible task when, in the words of Earl, W. Stevick, (1990), "the remote and almost God-like figures of the native language experts, as first viewed by the learners...gradually come to share, in the learner's eyes, the common human condition [as the experts, too, allow themselves to become learners of languages.]"

Paul, G. La Forge and the Social Process Model

However, Curran, C. A. himself wrote little about his theory of language. His student Paul, G. La Forge (1983), has attempted to be more explicit about Community Language Learning theory. Paul, G. La Forge (1983), reviews linguistic theory as a prelude to presenting the CLL model of language teaching/learning. The foreign language learners' tasks are, as Paul, G. La Forge (1983), puts it "to apprehend the sound system, assign fundamental meanings, and to construct a basic grammar of the foreign language." Paul, G. La Forge

(1983), says with pride that “after several months a small group of students was able to learn the basic sound and grammatical patterns of German.” Paul, G. La Forge (1983), begins by suggesting that language as social process is “different from language as communication.” We are led to infer that the concept of communication that Paul, G. La Forge rejects is the classic sender-message-receiver model in information theory. He suggests that the social-process model is different from earlier information-transmitting models because according to Paul, G. La Forge (1983), “Communication is more than just a message being transmitted from a speaker it at the same time both subject and object of his own message....communication involves not just the unidirectional transfer of information to the other, but the very constitution of the speaking subject in relation to its other.... Communication is an exchange which is incomplete without a feedback reaction from the destinee of the message.”

The social-process view of language is then elaborated in terms of six qualities or sub-processes:

1. The whole-person process.
2. The educational process.
3. The interpersonal process.
4. The developmental process.
5. The communicative process.
6. The cultural process.

Assumptions of CLL

Community Language Learning derives its primary insights and its organizing rationale from Rogerian counseling. Counseling, as Rogers, Carl R. (1951), sees it, consists of one individual (the counselor) assuming “in so far as he is able the internal frame of reference [of the client], perceiving the world as that person sees it and communicating something of this empathetic understanding.” CLL is a method assuming that learners should be treated as ‘the clients’ whose needs are to be addressed by the teacher who is in the role of ‘the counselor.’ CLL is also based on the belief that communication takes place within the matters which participants of interaction want to talk about. Only those learners who want to say something, they will speak and they speak only about the things that they really want to communicate to the others. Apart from using counseling as a tool to lower anxiety and eliminate negative attitudes towards the target language learning, CLL allows learners to use the mother tongue. It is assumed that learners would initially feel secure when expressing themselves in their mother tongue. Thus, CLL, learners are not required to produce communication from the beginning in the target language, but to become as clients who become members of a community where they can interact with other members and learn by working collaboratively. According to Curran, C. A. (1972), “Learning is viewed as a unified, personal and social experience.” The learner,

as Curran, C. A. (1972), puts it, “is no longer seen as learning in isolation and in competition with others.” According to Curran, C. A. (1972), “learners in the classroom are “regarded not as a ‘class’ but as a ‘group’ in need of therapy and counseling. In this case, students and teachers become an only set, with the aim to facilitate learning and mitigate the anxiety caused by the educational context, by means of the supportive community.”

Community Language Learning takes its claim of ‘whole-person’ as a part of CLL method. In CLL, teachers and learners are both involved in an interaction in which both experience a sense of their own wholeness. Curran, C. A. believed that to achieve success in teaching a foreign language the teacher should consider the learner as “whole Person”. According to Curran, C. A. (1972), “the intellectual and factual process alone are regarded as the main intent of learning, to the neglect of engagement and involvement of the self.” Whole-person learning means that teacher does not only consider their learners’ ‘feelings and intellect’; ability to master all the component of language skill, but he/she also should have some understanding of relationship among learners’ physical reactions, their intrinsic protective reactions and their desire to learn. This Approach, according to Bowen D. J., Madsen H. and Hilferty A. (1985), reflects a concern for the development of positive human relationships that aims to contribute to more effective

teaching/learning. While studying with adults, Curran, C. A. found out that older learners are often afraid of failure and feel threatened in a new and unfamiliar learning situation and fear to appear foolish or ignorant. Such a feeling would be reduced by means of the 'client-counselor' system as the teacher may not be seen as a threat or a heartless enemy. Rather, adult learners are supposed to perceive the teacher both as a friend who is giving the advice and as an assistant full of understanding for students' needs and concerns. Therefore, Curran found that this method is suitable for adults teaching because it is based on teacher-counselor, independence and responsibility of the learners for their own learning progress.

Richards, J. C. (1984), describes this phenomenon as follows: "Curran saw the problems of adult foreign language learning as resulting from emotional or affective barriers created by learners, and his method is designed to counter anxiety and negative emotions of defense which he believed impede foreign language learning in adults. For him, learning is a social phenomenon that takes place within the supportive environment of a 'community' of one's fellow learner." This assumption of 'supportive learning' is implemented by the teacher who, most of the time, allows the learners to interact with other learners. This Approach, according to Bowen D. J., Madsen H. and Hilferty A. (1985), reflects a concern for the development of positive human relationships that aims to contribute to

more effective teaching/learning.

According to Curran, C. A. (1972), in CLL, learners learn not only how to use the target language, but also how to take responsibility for their own learning. Therefore, the learners' feelings are important to their success. Learners, in CLL, are seen as a 'whole person' and their feelings, intellect, interpersonal relationships, defensive behavior and willingness to learn are addressed. Therefore, adults will feel comfortable to learn through the CLL because it puts them in situations in which they find themselves every day. CLL makes adults feel important, understood and more confident in the classroom. Therefore, this teaching model seems to reduce the stress caused by the new situation of learners and their fear of failure.

This principle of 'supportive learning' is implemented by the teacher who, most of the time, allows the learners to interact with other learners. Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), says that Curran, C. A. believes that in this kind of supportive learning process, the language becomes the means for developing creative and critical thinking and culture becomes an integral part of language learning. This method is based on the assumption that any use of the language as well as any attempts to learning it are an interpersonal (group) process associated with the interaction and communication. Thus, in learning a target language, CLL takes into account not only personality, motivational and emotional factors which influence the

process of learning, but also the interpersonal, community and interactional factors which are essential in the learning process. Paul, G. La Forge also elaborates on the interactional view of language underlying Community Language Learning. Paul, G. La Forge (1983), says, "Language is people; language is persons in contact; language is persons in response." According to him, interaction between learners and knowers is initially dependent. However, they have the right to decide what they want to learn. The learner tells the knower what he or she wishes to say in the target language, and the knower tells the learner how to say it. In CLL, interactions are of two kinds: Interactions among the learners themselves and interactions between the learners and the knowers. Interactions among learners are usually unpredictable in their contents, however, they involve exchanges of affect.

Objectives of CLL

CLL aims to remove the anxiety from learning by changing the relationship between the teacher and learner. According to Koba N., Ogawa N. and Wilkinson D. (2000), it is obvious that CLL differs from traditional language teaching methods with the techniques it employs to reduce learner's anxiety and help them produce sense of security. CLL is designed to remove the learners' fear and anxiety of the learning situation by changing the relationship between the teacher and student. According to Nagaraj, P. (2009), the

humanistic approach of CLL views learners and teachers as a community and thus the teacher as more facilitator than just a teacher in the traditional sense of the term. The teacher understands and allays the fears of the learners as they struggle to master another language. By being sensitive to the learners' fear, the teacher can turn the negative energy of learners' fears into positive energy and enthusiasm for learning the target language. CLL is designed to stimulate the confidence of the learners by making them interact with the teacher. According to Nagaraj, P, (2009), the Counseling-learning educational model is applied to language learning, and in this form, it became known as Community Language Learning which aspires to encourage teachers to see their learners as whole persons, where their feelings, intellect, interpersonal relationships, protective reactions and desire to learn are addressed. Cook, V. (2008), says that the main goal of learning is to be able to use the target language communicatively in an environment where learners are provided with stress-free, non-dependent and value-respecting teaching circumstances. This method is formed to make the learners confident and decide what they need from the study process. The purpose of CLL is to give the learner a living or direct experience of the target language. Moreover, learners learn from one another in a learning community and the teacher encourages them to take the responsibility for their own learning.

Principles of CLL

CLL is primarily based on the principles of teaching English for communication. To this end, learners' needs and feelings are addressed with due regard in every aspect of the teaching process.

According to Curran's Psycho-philosophical Principles, the following is a summary of the principles of CLL.

- (i) Resistance and uncertainty are inherent in any adult learning situation. The philosophy of CLL is that the adult learning process is hindered by primitive ego-defense patterns which block learning. These ego-defensive reactions take the form of withdrawal, rationalization, avoidance of risk-taking, etc. Curran, C. A. claims that these defensive reactions are inevitable because the learning situation is fraught with anxiety for the adult learner. The adult learner's feelings of anxiety and insecurity are caused by a number of factors. Among these are his ignorance of the target language, his fear of failure, or earlier bad experiences with language learning. The first step in teaching and learning therefore, is to rid the adult learner of his negative feelings. Curran, C. A. (1972), also asserts that a prerequisite for effective learning is 'optimal regression' to attitudes and behavior of childhood. Partly as a means for expediting this desirable regression on the part of the learner, Curran, C. A. emphasizes that the 'knower', that is, the teacher in CLL terminology,

should have training in basic counselling skills. This means, among other things, that the teacher must abandon his natural 'questioning, doubtful manner' towards the learner and replace it with 'unconditioned positive regard'; and to respond in a 'warm, secure, reassuring way' which will convey a deep understanding of the learner's anxious, insecure state. This, in brief, is the 'counselling response' which is practiced by CLL teachers.

- (ii) Human Learning is whole-person learning. Curran, C. A. entitles his book, 'Counselling-Learning: A Whole Person Approach for Education' and is, therefore, the originator of the term 'whole person' which is used to refer to the humanistic approach. In 'whole-person' learning, the learner is engaged at all levels of personality; the cognitive, the emotional, etc. CLL considers as fundamental the role played by effective factors in learning and sets out to establish a climate of security for the learner.
- (iii) For Curran, C. A., the conditions for effective learning can be summed up by the acronym SARD which stands for Security, Attention-Aggression, Reflection-Retention, and Discrimination. Curran's model makes provision for learner self-assertion (Attention-Aggression).
- (iv) The individual learns through and with others. According to Curran, C. A. (1972), learners do not learn alone but together with others in groups. The initial

task of a CLL group, therefore, is to become more than a collection of individuals, to become, indeed, a community 'Community' as opposed to 'group', is formed by an agreement to work together with others towards a goal of mastering the target language.

- (v) Human learning moves through a five-stage process. According to Curran, C. A. (1972), the learner grows into the new language like a living person, from dependence to independence. He likens the stage a learner goes through to birth and childhood (Stages 1 and 2), adolescence (Stages 3 and 4), and finally, adulthood (Stage 5). According to the degree of independence that the learner shows at a given time, he is said to be at one of the five stages.

Some of the significant CLL principles, as listed by Diane-Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, M. (2011), can be outlined as follows:

- It is important to establish a mutual relationship between the learner and the teacher in order to create a safe learning environment; students tend to learn more effectively when they feel secure.
- Language is for communication. Therefore, students should be encouraged to communicate as frequently as possible during the lesson.
- The teacher stands behind the students in order to facilitate the learning process.

- The teacher should respect the learners' level of confidence and transmit to them what needs to be done to be successful.
- Learners need to know the limits of a teaching activity so that they feel more secure.
- As the teacher and the learners are whole persons, they can share learning experiences, thus getting to know one another and building a sense of community.
- Considering that each learner is unique, the teacher, as a counselor, values the learners and their ideas; s/he and always listens to them without giving any advice in order to understand how they feel about the learning process.
- A learner as a client uses his native language to make the meaning clear and to build a bridge from the known to the unknown, since understanding classroom interaction facilitates learning.
- Learners are required to attend to one task at a time and are offered a quiet reflection period in order to learn.
- Learners have a choice in what they want to practice, as they have an inner wisdom about where they need to improve.
- Students work in groups to feel a sense of community; thus, they can learn from each other as well as the teacher. Cooperation, rather than competition, is encouraged.
- The teacher should correct the errors that learners have produced in a nonthreatening way.

- By reading their sentences to the other members of the class, learners develop a sense of community and build trust, which helps to reduce the threat of the new learning situation.
- When material is new or too familiar, learning tends not to take place. Retention will best take place somewhere in between novelty and familiarity.
- Apart from the language, learners also reflect on what they have experienced. Thus, they have an opportunity to learn about the language, about their own learning, and about how to learn from one another in a community.
- The syllabus is generated primarily by students in the beginning stages. Students are more willing to learn when they have created the material themselves.

Features of CLL

The features of the CLL may be summarized as follows:

- Collaborative and group learning are the main features of CLL.
- CLL creates special therapy learning relationship between the learner or the client on the one hand and the teacher or the knower on the other hand.
- The special relationship between the teacher and the learner is modelled on the counsellor-client relationship in therapy which makes it different from other teaching methods and approaches.

- CLL emphasizes on whole-person learning, advocates the role of a supportive and non-judgmental teacher and passes the responsibility for learning to the learners themselves.
- The reduction of anxiety and overcoming learning barriers that learners might face at the initial stage of learning process.
- CLL incorporates translation, transcription, and recording techniques.

Characteristics of CLL

The following are the main characteristics of Community Language Learning:

- In CLL, teachers act as counselors and students act as clients.
- In CLL, the role of teachers as counselors who understand and assist students to help them overcome the threatening affective factors.
- In CLL, teachers are sensitive to students' feelings and fears.
- CLL introduces elements which are necessary for establishing non-defensive learning such as security, aggression, attention, reflection, retention, etc.
- In CLL, there is emphasis on classroom cooperative interaction and not competitive interaction.
- In CLL, learning is not viewed as an individual accomplishment, but as something which is achieved collaboratively and cooperatively.

- CLL is unique as it is one of the few language teaching methods which sets out to foster conversation. It introduces a communicative situation right from the beginning as the teaching of language begins at the level of ordinary communicative interactions.
- In CLL, learners and the teacher learn through interaction with each other.
- CLL adopts conversation at the beginning of the class in the mother tongue and supports it with translation and later on introduces transcription.
- In CLL, learners become members of community.
- Students sit in a circle with a tape recorder and the teacher stands behind. They feel a sense of community and are ready to cooperate with each other rather than competing with each other.
- In CLL, the teacher exercises respect for learners' choice of learning content and encourages learner-generated conversations
- CLL is also non-corrective as the 'counselling response' involves acceptance of the contribution of the learner and considers it as being worthwhile in its own right without any need for value-judgement.
- Learners are expected to listen attentively to the knower, provide meanings which they want to express without hesitation, support fellow members of community, report deep inner feelings such as joy and pleasure and to become aid to the other learners.

Curran's 'Consensual Validation' or 'Convalidation'

Curran, C. A. discusses what he calls 'consensual validation' or 'convalidation' in which mutual warmth, understanding, and a positive evaluation of the other person's worth develops between the teacher and the learner. According to him, a relationship characterized by convalidation is considered essential to the learning process and is a key element of CLL classroom procedures. According to Curran, C. A. (1976), in CLL, successful learning occurs when a mutual understanding between the learner and the teacher is established to foster non-defensive learning, which can be collected under the acronym SAARRD concerning the psychological requirements for successful learning: Security, Aggression, Attention, Reflection, Retention, and Discrimination. They can be explained/as follows:

S: Stands for security. Unless learners feel secure, they will find it difficult to enter into a successful learning experience.

A: Stands for attention and aggression. CLL recognizes that a loss of attention should be taken as an indication of the learner's lack of involvement in learning, the implication being that variety in the choice of learner tasks will increase attention and therefore promote learning. Aggression applies to the way in which a child, having learned something, seeks an opportunity to show his or her strength by taking over and demonstrating what has been learned, using the new knowledge as a tool for

self-assertion.

R: Stands for retention and reflection. If the whole person is involved in the learning process, what is retained is internalized and becomes a part of the learner's new persona in the foreign language. Reflection is a consciously identified period of silence within the framework of the lesson for the student, as La Forge (1983), puts it, "to focus on the learning forces of the last hour, to assess his present stage of development, and to re-evaluate future goals."

D : Denotes discrimination. When learners, according to La Forge (1983), "have retained a body of material, they are ready to sort it out and see how one thing relates to another." This discrimination process becomes more refined and ultimately La Forge (1983), says, "enables the students to use the language for purposes of communication outside the classroom."

Earl, W. Stevick (1990), in his critical approach to Curran's method identifies five stages through which security and learning maturity could be achieved:

1. The risk-free 'embryonic' stage where the knower-teacher is in complete responsibility about the linguistic and emotional security of the learners and therefore he assumes the task of being a role model in the process of target language teaching/learning.
2. The self-assertion 'birth' stage where the person-learner starts experimenting his own potential in an L2 drive of learning while asking for confirmation on the validity of

his efforts. Thus, at this stage, emotional support seems to be less pertinent than in the previous stage.

3. The separate existence 'happy childhood' stage where the learner becomes even more autonomous and is capable of producing language enunciates without any need of corrections that may appear as learning inhibitors.

4. The reversal 'young adult' stage when the learner starts "welcoming linguistic corrections" and becomes aware of the emotions of the knower. In fact, this is a difficult stage in the process of learning and not all learners could make this transition successfully.

5. The independent 'mature adult' stage where mutual understanding and support between learners and educators is finally reached.

Learners' mutual exchanges become more intimate as the class becomes a community of learners who interact with each other. As learners come closer to each other and interact with each other in that interacting community, they become more motivated to keep pace with the gains of learning levels of their peers. Thus, learning process obtains its own deriving mechanisms and factors that arise from the learners' desire to be part of that intimate and interacting community. In later stages interactions between learner and knower are characterized as self-assertive (stage 2), resentful and indignant (stage 3), tolerant (stage 4), and independent (stage 5). These changes of interactive relationship are paralleled by five stages of language learning and five

stages of affective conflicts.

Stages of Learning in CLL

CLL basis of learning/teaching becomes just like being reborn. It is compared to the ontogenetic development of the of human child. In the first stage, the learners are like infants. They are totally dependent on the teacher who is considered as the knower and source of linguistic content. The teacher provides learners with all the language they need to initiate and carry on a conversation. The ‘handicapped communication’ that is carried on at this stage can be considered, according to Curran, C. A. (1972), as “an embryonic involvement between mother and child. The child exists totally in and through the mother.” It means that the learner is totally dependent of the teacher and at the same time a cordial rapport has been established between them. According to Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (1986), no defensive learning can result when teacher and learner treat each other as a whole person and do not separate each other’s intellect from his or feelings. Hence, the initial fear and anxiety of the learner is neutralized by the security of this relationship and at this stage, feelings of security and belonging are established. According to La Forge (1983), “A new self of the learner is generated or born in the target language” as the learner repeats utterances made by the teacher in the target language and they are encouraged to attend to the ‘overhears’ they experience between other

learners and their knowers. According to Paul, G. La Forge (1983), the result of the ‘overhear’ is that every member of the group can understand what any given learner is trying to communicate. At the first stage, the learner presents a message in the mother tongue to the teacher. The teacher translates it into the target language. The group overhears what the learner said and its translation in the mother tongue by the teacher. The learner then repeats the message in the target language and addresses it to another learner with whom he/she wishes to communicate and at the same time it would be recorded on a tape-recorder. The learner would continue to rehearse the utterance till he/she feels satisfied about his/her full grasp of it. Then, someone else would continue the conversation and so on.

In Stage 2, the ‘self-assertion’ stage or as La forge (1983), puts it the “child achieves a measure of independence from the parent” when the learners begin to assert their own growing independence. This is seen in the attempts made by the learners to say what they want to say in the foreign language without waiting for the teacher to feed it to them, using words and phrases they have picked up from the teacher. Curran, C. A. (1972), considers this stage as the stage in which the “infant has begun to kick in the womb.” It means that learners begin to establish their own self-affirmation and independence by using simple expressions and phrases they have previously heard in the class. The learner’s abilities

improve and it is like the stage at which the child begins to achieve a measure of independence from the parents.

Stage 3 is the 'birth' or 'separate existence' stage in which the teacher-counsellor encourages the learners to speak directly in the foreign language without getting help of the teacher. The learners then refer to the teacher only when they need a word or phrase. Curran, C. A. points out that later in this stage the learner may resent the teacher and react indignantly if the latter is over-solicitous and gives help in areas where the learner is striving to gain independent ability. Curran, C. A. (1972), states that "such personal indignation is a necessary assertion on the part of the learners, indicating that they do not wish to stay in the previous stages of dependency."

By the third stage; the separate-existence stage' in which the learners begin to understand others directly in the target language. Therefore, they will resent uninvited assistance provided by the knower at this stage. The counselor does not automatically assist the clients, but he passively offers his help to them. The counselor's role is to respond calmly and non-judgmentally, in a supportive manner and help the client try to understand his or her problems better by applying order and analysis to them. The learner starts speaking independently, asserts his/her own identity and rejects unrequested advice. The end of Stage 3 can be regarded as corresponding to the child beginning to walk.

Stage 4 is the 'reversal' or 'adolescent' stage which

represents a crucial transition in the knower-learner relationship. This stage may be considered ‘a kind of adolescence’ in which the learner functions independently, although his/her knowledge of the foreign language is still rudimentary and not creative or fully communicative. The learner, at this stage, is secure enough to take criticism and he/she becomes secure enough to be able to take correction and the knower intervenes freely to correct errors. The role of ‘psychological understanding’ shifts from knower to learner. The teacher is not only the one who transmits the knowledge, but also he is an expert who can handle the problems learners face while learning something new. The learner must function independently with the limited knowledge of the target language and learn how to elicit from the knower the advanced level of linguistic knowledge the knower possesses. At this stage, learners become ‘counsellors’ extending to knowers, who are in this sense now their ‘clients’, the same understanding and acceptance that knowers gave to them in the early stages.

Stage 5 is called ‘the independent stage’ in which the learner becomes independent from the knower. The learner knows everything the teacher does and can become knower for a new learner. Though in stage 5 learner is independent, the knower may intervene to add idiomatic usage, refine and improve the style of the language the learner produces. Therefore, at this stage, learners refine their understanding of the target language

and its correct use and improve, as well, the style and knowledge of linguistic appropriateness. In stage 5, the learner may even become counselor to less advanced learners while benefiting from contact with the original knower.

According to Paul, G. La Forge, as cited in Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), the five stages of Community Language Learning are as follows:

1. The learners is like an infant, in the sense that he/she is completely dependent on the counselor for linguistic content. Here the learner repeats utterances made by the teachers in target language and overhears the interchanges between other learners on the one hand and the knower on the other hand.
2. As the child achieves a measure of independence from the parents, similarly, in this stage, the learners also begin to establish their own self-affirmation and tendency to become independent by using simple expressions and phrases they have previously heard.
3. Then, comes the separate existence stage in which the learners begin to understand others in the group directly in the target language.
4. A kind of adolescence emerges at this stage in which learners start functioning independently although their knowledge of the foreign language is still rudimentary and non-creative.
5. The independent stage is the last stage in which the learners refine their understanding of the register and

possess the vocabulary as well as grammatically correct language use and turn that rudimentary and non-creative gain into a creative and communicative skill.

The stages of learning in CLL identified by Curran, C. A. are listed by Marshall, S. and Baker, J. (2000), as follows:

- (1) Students don't know the target language and are completely dependent on the teacher.
- (2) With the aid of the teacher, students begin to use the new language.
- (3) Students use language independently and confidently, understand better, and may even begin to resist intervention by the teacher.
- (4) Students are able to express themselves more elaborately, although they may be aware of gaps in their knowledge.
- (5) Students are able to continue their learning without assistance.

Material in CLL

As language is for communication, the materials need to be authentic and should allow learners to express their desires, wants, beliefs, opinions and ideas easily. In CLL, the learner determines what is to be learned, and make the role of the teacher as the facilitator. According to Rivers, W. M. (1986), one important aspect of this method is that there is no a set syllabus for the course. Instead, learners decide on the content of the

lesson and select their own vocabulary with the help of the counselor. Thus, there is no a designed syllabus or specific textbooks to follow or prepared lesson plan or even defined set of objectives. CLL method emphasizes learners' responsibility for their own learning. Learners select their own vocabulary and initiate the content themselves, mostly as a dialogue or conversation; and they are aided in production by the teacher. In other words, they are the learners themselves who determine the content of the lesson by means of meaningful conversations in which they get engaged and discuss real messages. Communication in language classes is generally promoted through learners' efforts and materials. This does not mean that the entire responsibility for the learning experience is turned over to learners. In the CLL classroom, learners and teachers collaborate to conduct various instructional tasks and activities, as there is no a ready-made syllabus and teaching material to follow. It means that CLL is student-centered method where the learners and their potentialities and collaboration with each other are at the core of the instruction. The syllabus used is learner-generated, in the sense that the learners choose what they want to learn and to say in the target language. Thus, in this teacher/learner-centered context, each and every member of the learning group can become a decision maker and design his/her own learning material.

According to Curran, C. A. (1976), "The... design

and use of machines...now appear[s] to make possible the freeing of the teacher to do what only a *human person* can do... become a learning counselor.” Dieter Stroinigg, in Earl, W. Stevick (1980), presents a protocol of what a first day’s CLL class covered which is outlined here:

1. Informal greetings and self-introductions were made.
2. The teacher made a statement of the goals and guidelines for the course.
3. A conversation session in the foreign language took place.
 - a. A circle was formed so that everyone had visual contact with each other and all were in easy reach of a tape recorder microphone.
 - b. One student-initiated conversation with another student by giving a message in the L1 (English).
 - c. The instructor, standing behind the student, whispered a close equivalent of the message in the L2 (German).
 - d. The student then repeated the L2 message to its addressee and into the tape recorder microphone as well.
 - e. Each student had a chance to compose and record a few messages.
 - f. The tape recorder was rewound and replayed at intervals.
 - g. Each student repeated the meaning in English of what he or she had said in the L2 and helped to refresh the memory of others.

4. Students then participated in a reflection period, in which they were asked to express their feelings about the previous experience with total frankness.
5. From the material just recorded the instructor chose sentences to write on the blackboard that highlighted elements of grammar, spelling, and peculiarities of capitalization in the L2.
6. Students were encouraged to ask questions about any of the above.
7. Students were encouraged to copy sentences from the board with notes on meaning and usage. This became their 'textbook' for home study.

Teacher's Role in CLL

It is very clear that CLL advocates a holistic approach to language learning, since 'true' human learning is not merely cognitive, but also affective. Therefore, attention to the affective dimension of personality is clearly seen in the support and security given by the teacher (knower) to the learner (client) and especially in the manner it is provided. In fact, the learner's relationship with the teacher is central. CLL considers that language learning develops social relationships and success in language learning results from a successful relationship among learners and teachers. In CLL, the teachers, as counselors, are in charge of overcoming the negative feelings that learners, as clients experience towards learning a new language.

CLL redefined the role of the teacher (as counselor in CLL terminology) and learners (as client in CLL terminology) in the language classroom. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), "Community Language learning draws on the counseling metaphor to redefine the roles of the teacher (the counselor) and learners (the clients) in the language classroom." Teacher's role in CLL derives from the function of the counselor in Rogerian psychological counseling which considers that learning takes place when the teacher considers the learner as 'whole-person'. According to Curran, C. A. (1976), "One of the functions of the counseling response is to relate affect... to cognition. Understanding the language of 'feeling', the counselor replies in the language of cognition." The method draws on the counseling role in which the teacher acts as a counsellor while the learner is seen as a client. In other words, this method refers to two roles: that of the knower; teacher, and the student; learner. Thus, the teacher in CLL is regarded as a 'counselor' or 'knower' whose role is to respond to the 'client' (learner).

CLL announces a great shift of the conventional teacher's role model to merely a kind of 'language counselor' who is ready to support his learners in the learning process. In CLL, the teacher performs more tasks, perhaps more than those of the conventional teacher. According to Ariza, E. N. (2002), it is the responsibility of the teacher to discern what is best for the

learner. The teacher is not anymore present in order to gauge learners' learning gains, but rather to encourage them to monitor their own progress in the process of learning. The teacher's actual role is to foster a kind of, what is termed by Earl, W. Stevick (1990), as 'supportive reflection' among his learners in a warm and caring environment with the absence of any sense of competition. In other words, learning takes place when learners interact with teacher and their classmates, not competitively but collaboratively. Therefore, the teacher calmly, non-judgmentally and in a supportive manner, helps the learner understand his/her own problems better by providing his/her opportunities to sort out, order and analyze problems. Often, this supportive role, as Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), say requires greater energy expenditure than an 'average' teacher. Thus, the teacher does not have any authoritarian role. In fact, the teacher's task is just to, as Lillard, P. P. (1972), puts it, "set free the individual's own potential for constructive self-development."

The CLL teacher should possess special traits in order to overcome the problems which face the learners in the learning process within the learning context. As noted by Harmer, Jeremy (2007), teachers in the CLL classroom facilitate learning and help learners with what they want to say. According to Brown, (1977), it should be noted that the success of CLL is highly dependent upon the expertise of the teacher-counselor at all stages. The

teacher must be fluent in both the target language and students' mother tongue so as to translate the requested chunks and understand the learners during reflection sessions.

Depending on the stages of learning, most of the roles defined by Harmer, Jeremy can be attributed to the CLL teacher, including counselor, supportive, input provider (translator), imitator, prompter, mentor, human computer, controller, creator of safe environment, motivator, friend, expert, facilitator, organizer, conductor, orchestra leader, actor, and so on. Of these roles, being a counselor has crucial importance, as the teacher should be able to understand and support the learners and to overcome negative feelings that might hinder the smooth process of learning. The teachers can show their acceptance of the learners by understanding learners' fears and be sensitive and considerate to them and turn those negative feelings into a positive energy that furthers their learning. Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), states that, "the teacher facilitates communication in the classroom. In this role, one of his major responsibilities is to establish situation likely to promote communication. Above all, students are communicators." Bowen, D. J., et al. (1985), contend that teachers are to recognize each learner's need for personal fulfillment, and therefore, communication in language classes should stem from joint efforts towards completing a given task.

The teacher is particularly responsible for

providing safe environment in which students (clients) can learn and grow. Curran, C. A. (1976), describes the importance of a secure environment as follows: “As whole persons, we seem to learn best in an atmosphere of personal security, feeling secure we are freed to approach the learning situation with the attitude of willing openness. Both the learner’s and knower’s level of security determine the psychological tone of the entire learning experience.” The teachers who use the CLL want the learners not only to learn how to use the target language communicatively and meaningfully, but also to learn about their own learning and to take increasing responsibility for it. Teachers consider that such a learning can be accomplished in a non defensive manner. Thus, the role of the CLL teacher can be enumerated as follows:

- The teacher creates and maintains a safe, secure and non-threatening learning environment by becoming supportive and encourages learners to take part in the learning activities so that they can feel secure and free to actively participate throughout the learning process.
- The teacher structures activities and organizes them.
- The teacher monitors learning tasks and sets their limits.
- The teacher makes choice about the suitable time for correcting the language produced by the learner.
- The teacher monitors the flow of events in the classroom without overwhelming or shocking the learner.

Learners' Role in CLL

According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), "Learners are expected to listen attentively to the knower, to freely provide meanings they wish to express, to repeat target utterances without hesitation, to support fellow members of the community, to report deep inner feelings and frustrations as well as joy and pleasure, and to become counselors to other learners. The teacher, meanwhile, has role to provide a safe environment in which 'clients' can learn and grow, and operate the class activities, without conventional materials, depending on student topic to shape and motivate the class. Whereas, a textbook is not considered a necessary component; materials may be developed by the teacher as the course develops."

In the typical language teaching/learning context, the teacher teaches and then the individual returns to the prescribed textbook. In such a case, the learning output is the result of the individual mental effort. Thus, in the typical view of education, learners are not treated as whole persons, but as empty vessels to be filled up with knowledge by the teacher. However, in CLL, learning is not viewed as an individual accomplishment, but as something that is achieved collaboratively in the social setting of a group or community. CLL considers that learning can be facilitated by taking humanistic conceptualizations into consideration and involving learners in the learning process through collaborative

efforts. In this regard, it recognizes learners' feelings and struggling in the process of target language learning. According to King, A. (1993), in CLL, the learner is not anymore a pathetic receptor but an 'agent' able to create and transform contents of learning in a context of mutual support among peers in the class and under the supervision of the 'spiritual guide' or 'mentor' where empathy is the dominating value. The learners are not taught by being told, but rather by being left to discover long structures and, as Ellis, R. (1994), puts it, "negotiate meaning." Therefore, the central points of these learning strategies are 'discovery learning' where, as Bruner, J. (1966a), says, "the learner creates understanding through personal experience and interaction with external stimuli."

CLL is a 'group' approach that applies group counseling process to target language teaching/learning in which learners work together in groups so as to learn their target language in an environment dominated by the sense of community which encourages interaction, collaboration and cooperation. It considers interaction and collaboration as a means of learning. Paul, G. La Forge (1983), emphasizes the importance of interaction as "Language is people; language is persons in contact; language is persons in response." In an interactive group of friendly and collaborative learners of the new language, the learning process may run much better and its achievement becomes tangible.

Role of Mother Tongue in CLL

CLL is designed for monolingual conversation classes where the teacher-counselor will be able to use the learners' mother tongue. In other words, to motivate learners to learn the target language, learners' mother tongue plays a significant role, both during learning and in reflection sessions where learners express their feelings about the course and even contribute to design it.

As the goal is to teach the target language in a stress-free environment, the primary concern of the teacher is to reduce learners' anxiety towards learning the target language by means of translating the utterances they produce into the target language. Thus, there is a close link between CLL procedures and the bilingual education referred to by Mackey, W. F. (1972), as 'language alternation' or 'code switching.' In language alternation, a message/lesson is presented first in the mother tongue and then again in the target language. In CLL, the use of mother has almost an equal importance with that of the target language since it is used as a facilitator for learners. Learners know the meaning and flow of the target language message from their recall of the parallel meaning and flow of mother tongue message. They, holistically, develop a view of the target language out of these messages in both the target language and the mother tongue. Thus, there is a clear integration of translation in the process of teaching/learning so that the learners will

take it easy and disassociate learning from risk-taking and communicate with self-confidence. Therefore, it can be said that CLL is a method that is learner-focused and based on language for communication.

Thus, the mother tongue is used as a means of overcoming psychological barriers which the learners initially feel. Therefore, in the beginning stages, as the learners are highly dependent on the teacher and the knowledge of the teacher in the target language, the mother tongue is used much more than target language. However, in the later stages, after they have become independent and built mutual relationships with the teacher, the students begin to use target language more freely.

As Diane-Larsen-Freeman and Anderson, M. (2011), note by saying that the students' security is initially enhanced by using their mother tongue. As they develop the sense of security and readiness for speaking, they become more independent and start to take responsibility for their own learning. The amount of the target language use decreases following the first and second stages.

Teaching Techniques and Procedures in CLL

In CLL, the teaching techniques and procedures exemplify, in theory and practice, the whole-person approach to teaching and learning which derives from humanistic approach to learning. In other words,

CLL involves humanistic techniques which engage the whole person; the emotions and feelings as well as linguistic knowledge and behavioral skills in the process of learning. According to Moskowitz, G. (1978), CLL techniques belong to a larger set of foreign language teaching practices sometimes described as humanistic techniques. Moskowitz, G. (1978), defines humanistic techniques as those that “blend what the student feels, thinks and knows with what he is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the acceptable way of life, self-actualization and self-esteem are the ideals the exercises pursue. [The techniques] help build rapport, cohesiveness, and caring that far transcend what is already there... help students to be themselves, to accept themselves, and be proud of themselves... help foster a climate of caring and sharing in the foreign language class.”

Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (1986), recommends the procedures of teaching Community Language Learning Method as follows:

1. Tape Recording Student Conversation: Students choose what they want to say, and their target language production is recorded for later listening/dissemination
2. Transcription: Teacher produces a transcription of the tape-recorded conversation with translations in the mother language - this is then used for follow up activities or analysis
3. Reflection on Experience: Teacher takes time during or

after various activities to allow students to express how they feel about the language and the learning experience, and the teacher indicates empathy/understanding

4. Reflective Listening: Students listen to their own voices on the tape in a relaxed and reflective environment

5. Self-correction: The teacher stating anything in the target language the student wants to practice, giving them the opportunity to self-correct.

6. Small Group Tasks: Students work in small groups to create new sentences using the transcript, afterwards sharing them with the rest of the class.

The basic procedures of CLL can be seen as derived from the counselor-client relationship. Consequently, the language classroom design in CLL is different from the traditional language classrooms. In CLL, learners are seated in a circle around a table with the number of knowers varying from one per group to one per student. There must be a sound recorder on the table while the teacher, as a counselor and translator, stands outside the circle of the group so as to remove the fear and lower anxiety that learners might have, assist them during learning, foster interaction among them and enable them to communicate with him and with each other. According to Blair, R. W. (1991), what needs to be noted here is that when the communication occurs in the session, it is usually thanks to someone who is more fluent outside the circle. Learners should listen carefully to the knower, provide the meanings they wish to express, repeat target

utterances without fear or hesitation, support other learners who need support, become counselors to other learners and report feelings frustrations, joy and pleasure. The teacher gives an expression in the target language or the learners initiate oral communication mostly in the mother tongue or the target language. When learners tell what they wish to say in the mother tongue, the teacher translates it into the target language. In this way, the common 'textbook' or teaching material is created, activated and practiced. Then the learners repeat the material after the teacher utters it in the target language. The learners say the version in the target language without any help from the teacher. These learner-generated materials are recorded so that the learners can hear and discriminate their voices in the target language during the reflective listening stage before the transcription stage.

One of the fundamental activities peculiar to this method is the learners' period of sincere reflections on their own learning experience. Reflections are gathered through either individual or group representation. It helps learners to become independent learners. Later on, the recorded chunks in the target language are transcribed by the teacher on the board thereby providing linguistic and lexical forms to practice and analyze. Following the analysis of the transcribed chunks with the mother tongue equivalents, the learners are provided with opportunity to practice pronunciation. Thus, most of the teaching activities in this method result in dialogue transcription to

analyze as well as internalize the language which is being taught. Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2003), emphasizes the importance of the dialogue transcription in terms of foreign language learning as follows: “I have found this (dialogue transcription) to be a particularly good way in which to raise consciousness because, since learners generated the dialogue, they are invested in it. Furthermore, they know the meaning of what they have said in the L2. What is left for them to focus on is how the target language forms are mapped onto the meaning in an appropriate manner.” Such learning takes place in a communicative situation where teachers and learners are involved in, as Curran, C. A. (1972), puts it “an interaction ... in which both experience a sense of their own wholeness.”

As far as oral activities and pronunciation practice are concerned, the learners get engaged in free conversations with the teacher or with each other and participate also in learning activities such as discussion, dialogue, summarizing, presentation and writing a story which are carried out as group work. Then, learners may give some ideas about the topic by using their own language. As far as evaluation and assessment are concerned there is no place for a formal evaluation in CLL unless the school requires an informative evaluation at the end of the course. Even in the learning sessions, the teacher does not directly correct learners’ errors. Rather, the teacher just repeats learners’ utterances without

resorting to any correction of the mistakes at this stage. The teacher recasts errors in a non-threatening way. The teacher's main task is to help learners to become independent learners, take the responsibility of learning and evaluation by themselves and follow the progress in learning a foreign language without having too much guidance from the teacher. Learners are encouraged to evaluate themselves through alternative assessment techniques such as writing a paragraph, conducting oral interviews, performing presentations, etc. It means that in CLL, evaluation, assessment, grades and assignments do not occupy a central place of the teaching/learning process. Learners are left to discover their own potentialities and make meaningful connections between the acquired knowledge and the 'whole knowledge'. Learners can construct and create their own knowledge according to their own interests and in collaboration with other learners and the teacher as well. Such a teaching environment develops learners' capacity to bear responsibility for their own learning, learn from each other, build a sense of community which is secure and motivating and organize further discussion of what they have already learned. They can also express their feeling and attitudes towards the process of how they learned what they learned. As CLL is mainly concerned with the humanistic aspects of language learning, there is no intentional or explicit grammar teaching and linguistic aspects of the target language are generally overlooked.

T. Earl, W. Stevick, (1990), justifies avoidance of direct teaching of grammar and pronunciation by saying: “Resistances to grammar and pronunciation [are] similar to resistances to ethical, legal, and religious standards of conduct...the person’s resistance...extends to a wide area of what he sees as the outside imposition of any authority.” Vocabulary, pronunciation patterns and some grammar points are derived from the learner-generated language.

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), say that the procedures of CLL are divided into four:

- 1) First, a group of learners make their seats become a circle with the teacher standing outside the circle.
- 2) A student expresses a message in the native language and the teacher translates it into the foreign language in a warm, accepting tone, in a simple language in phrases of five or six words.
- 3) The student turns to the group and presents his ideas in the foreign language. He has the counselor’s aid if he mispronounces or hesitates on a word or phrase.
- 4) Record the students’ talk into a cassette after they are more fluent in expressing their idea in the foreign language.

Thus, to some extent, it can be said that the teaching techniques and procedures in CLL seem to be conventional ones. They include the following conventional activities:

1. Translation: In this activity, learners form groups

facing each other and a learner utters a message or meaning he/she wants to express. The message may be either in the mother tongue or in the target language. The teacher, on his part, translates it and then the learner repeats the teacher's translation till he/she masters it.

2. Group Work: In this activity, the learners may get engaged in various group tasks such as small-group discussion of a specific topic, preparing a conversation about a topic, preparing a summary of a topic for presentation to another group or preparing a story that will be presented to the teacher and the rest of the class.

3. Recording: In this activity, the learners record their conversations in the target language for transcription, practice, analysis and feedback.

4. Transcription: In this activity, the learners transcribe the utterances and conversations they have already recorded for the purpose of practice and analysis of linguistic and lexical forms.

5. Analysis: In this activity, the learners analyze and study the transcriptions of target language sentences in order to focus on particular grammatical/lexical usage or on the application of particular grammar rules or lexical form.

6. Reflection and Observation: In this activity, the learners reflect and report on their experience of the class activities. This usually consists of expressions of feelings, reactions, etc., through the language they have learned.

7. Listening: In this activity, the learners listen to a

monologue by the teacher who involves elements the learners might have elicited or overheard in their interactions in the class.

8. Free conversation: In this activity, the learners engage in ‘free conversation with’ the teacher or with other learners in the class. This might include discussion of what they learned as well as feelings they had about how they learned during the learning sessions.

Merits of CLL

According to Paul, G. La Forge (n.d.), “CLL appears to have value for the typical classroom language learning situation. CLL also appears to be unique in the way in which it puts the theoretical insights gained from modern psychology and group dynamics to work in service of education and language learning. Some of the skepticism regarding the value of the insights of modern psychology and linguistics for language learning can be dispelled as a result of the CLL approach to second language acquisition.”

The following are the main advantages of Community Language Learning:

- CLL is learner-centered as learning and teaching take the form of learners’ talking with one another about subjects that interest them.
- The CLL classroom is democratic. The learners themselves select the topics to be discussed and initiate every interaction themselves.

- CLL is an attempt to overcome the threatening affective factors in target language learning.
- CLL allows the learners to determine type of conversation they want to choose and get involved in it.
- CLL allows learners to analyze the language inductively
- The learner-centered nature of CLL can provide extrinsic motivation to the learners and capitalize on that intrinsic motivation to create learning achievement.
- CLL can be used in larger school classes where grouping arrangements can be done by organizing learners in pairs or more.
- As CLL aims to eradicate the anxiety from learning by changing the relationship between the teacher and learner, it can be useful to some extent to overcome these barriers.
- Learners can be motivated to learn English by adopting some of the CLL techniques, such as translation, reflection, reflective listening, recording, etc.

Demerits of CLL

Although CLL possesses various advantages, it also has a number of drawbacks. They can be enumerated as follows:

- The counselor/teacher can become too non-directive though learners often need directives.
- This method lacks syllabus; a posteriori approach to syllabus specification.

- It is not possible to apply this method with young learners as they are usually textbook-oriented.
- The teaching/learning procedures and techniques do not ensure that a variety of material necessary for learning the target language is included since the content is determined by the participants.
- The success of CLL relies largely on the translation expertise of the teacher, however, translation is an intricate and difficult task.
- This method relies completely on an inductive strategy of learning which is difficult for children in foreign language context. Deductive learning is also a viable strategy of learning.
- Learners may not be satisfied with the lack of structure or sequence in the introduction of grammatical and lexical items and the reliance, solely, on an inductive strategy of learning.
- It can't be implemented in foreign language context.
- It is not possible to apply this method in large classes.
- This method lacks grammatical and lexical sequence.

Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia Method belongs to Accelerated Language Learning developed on the basis of the theories of a Bulgarian Educational Psychologist called Georgi, Lozanov who advocated the power of suggestion in learning. According to Georgi, Lozanov (1982), Suggestion is “a communicative factor which is expressed in proposing’ that the personality should make its choice.”

Suggestopedia or Suggestopedy is also known as Desuggestopedia. It is a specific set of learning recommendations derived from Suggestology which Georgi, Lozanov, as quoted in Earl, W. Stevick (1976), describes as a “science... concerned with the systematic study of the non-rational and/ or non-conscious influences” that human beings are constantly responding to.”

Desuggestopedia is related to affective humanistic approach. Therefore, it is also known as Affective Humanistic Approach. Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), finds it based on Suggestology; a psychological theory which says that human beings respond to subtle clues of which they are not consciously aware.

Thus, Suggestion is at the heart of the theory of learning underlying Suggestopedia Method. Georgi,

Lozanov (1978), distinguishes his theory of suggestion from the “narrow clinical concept of hypnosis as a kind of static, sleep like, altered state of consciousness.” He further claims that what distinguishes his method from hypnosis and other forms of mind-control is that these other forms lack “a desuggestive-suggestive sense” and “fail to create a constant set up access to reserves through concentrative psycho-relaxation.”

In his method, Georgi, Lozanov (1978), concentrates on using memorization in learning activity. He says that “memorization in learning by the Suggestopedic method seems to be accelerated 25 times over that in learning by conventional methods.” Georgi, Lozanov suggests that his method and its course should direct the learner not only to mastering vocabulary memorization and acquiring habits of speech, but also to get truly involved in the act of communication.

Suggestopedia aims to deliver conversational proficiency to the learner rapidly. Bancroft, W. J. (1978), says that, “foreign language can occur at a much faster rate than what ordinarily transpires, because, our inefficiency,” he asserts, “is that we set up psychological barriers to learning.” Bancroft, W. J. (1978), adds, “so we always fear that we will fail, we will be unable to perform, that we will be limited in our ability to learn. Then, the result is that we do not use the full mental powers that we have.”

Bancroft, W. J. (1978), gives additional

information about the Suggestopedia Method by saying that, “This method has been developed to eliminate the students’ feeling that they cannot be successful, and in order to help the student overcome the barriers to learn successfully. This method is conducted in an appropriate setting. Regular classrooms are not used because they are associated with frustration, failure and previous learning efforts.” Bancroft, W. J. (1978), adds, “Accordingly, a carpeted living room with comfortable chairs is the appropriate setting that would encourage informal contact and free natural communication. Students go through a basic course that consists of ten long dialogues. The duration of the course is sixty hours, and about two thousand vocabulary items are taught in the course. The daily load of students is four hours.”

Assumptions of Suggestopedia Method

Georgi, Lozanov (1982), believes that Suggestopedia means the application of the study of suggestions to the pedagogy of language teaching/learning. He suggests that Suggestopedia Method could best be used to memorize vocabulary and even acquire communication skills.

Georgi, Lozanov (1982), states that “we may use only five to ten percent of our mental reserves. We need to be disgusted. Suggestopedia then means the application of the study of suggestion to pedagogy.” Moreover, Georgi, Lozanov (1982), emphasizes that the increased

memory power is not an isolated skill in itself, but it is a result of “positive, comprehensive stimulation of personality.”

The central assumption which underlies the Suggestopedic Method is that the learner learns not only from teaching activity, but also from the environment in which the teaching activity takes place. He believes that the learner gets better learning results if the learning environment is attractive, bright, cheerful and there are no psychological barriers that hinder the process of smooth learning. According to Suggestopedia Method most of the learners fail to learn properly because of some psychological barriers; a feeling that they may not achieve a tangible progress in the process of learning. Therefore, it is necessary that the learner has to overcome, both, his own limitations and the psychological barriers that may hamper his learning process. In other words, the limitations of the learners need to be ‘desuggested’. Georgi, Lozanov, as quoted in Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), believed that, “we do not use our mental capacities to the full as we have within us many psychological barriers. We fear that we will not be able to do well.” Suggestopedia Method believes that the fear of failure that the learners may be carrying in their minds all the time, discourages them and makes them non-performers in the process and activity of learning. This negative state of the mind acts as a barrier in the way of learning process. The result of this negative mind-set is that the learner actually uses, in

the process of learning, only 5% to 10% of his mental capabilities and potentialities. Therefore, Desuggestopedia was proposed to overcome such a negative state of mind and increase the learners' mental capacity in learning and their true involvement in the learning activities.

Suggestopedia believes that repetition and real things lead to boredom whereas creativity, novelty and fantasy refresh the learners' mind, open the wide doors of learning and encourage the learner to be active in the process of learning. Thus, learning is considered as an enjoyable activity in itself. Therefore, Suggestopedia Method believes that even the songs of young children can provide stress-free, relaxing and enjoyable moments, create a conducive learning environment and foster learner's focusing on learning item. Hence, Suggestopedia Method cares for learner's feelings, attitudes and state of mind. In fact, Suggestopedia or Desuggestopedia was based on the principles of, relaxation, joy, fun and easiness. Georgi, Lozanov believes that most learning takes place in a relaxed, but focused state. Thus, Suggestopedia gave importance to the idea that learning should be stress-free and must involve as much fun and joy as it may be possible.

This method believes that learners communicate at two levels; conscious level and sub-conscious level. At the conscious level, the learner structures the message linguistically so as to produce an acceptable utterance in

the process of communication. At the unconscious level, the learner develops positive mood towards learning through music or any tool that helps him to get involved in the process of learning. Suggestopedia Method attempts to combine these two levels of communication and make the learners foster their communicative skills.

Characteristics of Suggestopedia Method

The most conspicuous characteristics of Suggestopedia Method are the decoration, furniture and arrangement of the whole classroom, the use of music and the authoritative behavior of the teacher during the teaching/learning process. Georgi, Lozanov's (1982), (1978), claim for his method appears dramatic as "There is no sector of public life where Suggestology would not be useful."

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), say that both Yoga and Soviet Psychology have traditional ties to this method. "From 'Raju-Yoga', Lozanov has borrowed and modified techniques for alerting states of consciousness and concentration, and the use of rhythmic breathing. From Soviet Psychology, Lozanov has taken the notion that all students can be taught a given-subject matter at the same level of skill. Lozanov claims that this method works equally well whether or not students spend time on outside study. He promises success through Suggestopedia to the academically gifted and ungifted alike."

Aims of Suggestopedia Method

The prime aim of Suggestopedia Method is to overcome the psychological barriers which might be ingrained in the learner's mind, increase the confidence of the learner and develop his conversational and communicative proficiency. In other words, Suggestopedia Method aims at minimizing the sense of insecurity, fear and frustration in the minds of learners about a new language by means of creating a natural and informal learning context and situation which would enable the learners to expel their sense of fear and frustration away and make them wholeheartedly involved in learning activities. According to Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), Suggestopedia is the pedagogic application of suggestions; it aims to help learners to overcome the learners' feeling that they cannot be successful in the process of learning. In this method, the learning environment, background and setting play an important role in arranging the learning context and preparing the learner for learning. It attempts to eradicate learners' mental and psychological barriers, fear, insecurity and frustration and then help learners reach to the deep potentialities of their minds and make the best use of them in the process of learning.

Features of Suggestopedia Method

The salient feature of Suggestopedia Method is that it takes into consideration learner's

motivation, state of mind and mood, desuggests factors that may cripple positive motivation or hinder learning, integrates the conscious and subconscious aspects of learning and thus provides stimulus variation to all learners during the learning process.

A most distinct feature of Suggestopedia Method is the centrality of music and musical rhythm in the process of learning. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), Georgi, Lozanov employs music “to relax learners as well as to structure pace and punctuate the presentation of linguistic material.” Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), go on to say that “Decoration, furniture and arrangement of the classroom, the use of music and the authoritative behavior of the teacher”, are the distinct features of Suggestopedia Method as they are part of conveying the message to learners during the process of learning.

Techniques and Material in Suggestopedia

Suggestopedia Method focuses on the learner’s state of mind as it has a tangible effect on learner’s motivation to learn. It was developed to remove the fear of failing from the mind of the learner and increase his/her self-confidence. To do so, the teacher employs different stimuluses to increase learner’s sense of confidence and integrates fine art in the classroom to overcome psychological barriers that may hinder learning. Even learners’ errors are accepted by the teacher

and corrected by him in a gentle and diplomatic manner in order to make the learners comfortable and have no fear of committing errors.

Earl, W. Stevick (1980), says that in Suggestopedia Method the teachers should be trained in “the precise ways of using voice quality and intonation and timing are apparently both important and intricate” in order to read dialogues in a special way, cheer up the learners by direct suggestion that the lesson is enjoyable and present things in an easy manner so as the learners can shed away their fear, get relaxed, feel comfortable and learn what would be taught to them. Thus, the learners must be put into a situation that makes them trust the teacher so that they can feel eager to get engaged in the lesson which would be presented to them and retain the information delivered to them. After teaching and observing the learners’ achievement, the teacher may employ indirect suggestion by telling the learners about the successful learners who grasped the lesson taught to them.

Bancroft, W. J. (1972), notes that in Suggestopedia Method, the teaching material is “presented with varying intonations and a co-ordination of sound and printed word or illustration.” The teacher reads the teaching material to be learnt which often is graded by lexis and grammar and then he encourages conversation among the learners.

In this method, the classroom set up is completely different. There are varieties in learners’ activities in the classroom. The class is full of attractive and interesting

things such as pictures, charts, etc., that make it looks bright, cheerful, colorful and attractive so as to create a cheerful learning atmosphere in the class and pave the way for establishing a conducive learning context. It employs paintings also to desuggest and alley the learner's fear, nervousness, frustration and psychological barriers.

Songs are also introduced and employed as they are considered to have the potentials to create a proper mood, provide an enjoyable atmosphere, activate the learner's speech muscles, trigger positive vibrations in their articulation system and enable them to be articulate in their communicative outcome. The musical background of the classroom is built on a particular type of musical beats and a particular rate of presentation of that musical rate so as to achieve the required results. Georgi, Lozanov, recommends a series of slow movement (sixty beats a minute) because it is considered that under the stimulation of sixty rhythmic patterns the body would relax and the mind would become most alert and aware to receive learning and retain it. The use of music does not only relax the learner, but also creates a focused state/alpha state.

In Suggestopedia Method, role playing is also introduced as assuming a new identity evokes imagination, triggers fantasy and leads to fun, creativity and innovativeness. All this enables the learners to have a new identity in a new and creative environment and thus

they present themselves articulately in front of others without any sense of insecurity, fear or inhibition. Thus, the creative adaptation by which the teacher uses varieties of activities such as songs, role play, music, games, festive environment in the classroom, its brightness and decorated nature, the shape of the chairs and their setting, the song and the musical background and the attractive personality of the teacher all are considered as crucial and important in the process of instruction and as part of the content of the teaching material itself.

Merits of Suggestopedia Method

- Both, 'micro and macro-studies' play a great role in this method.
- Various image, pictures, charts, colors, role-play and musical tones trigger positive mood in the learner, expel sense of monotony from their minds and emotionalize the meaning of language materials taught to them.
- The informal atmosphere and the use of music relieve students of the sense of stress and strain and hence make learning easier and interesting.
- Music can affect both the body and the mind of the learners. The first has a relaxing effect whereas the second has an alerting effect and both effects are useful, if properly employed in the process of learning, in maximizing the learning achievement.
- Relaxed learners are capable to learn the target language naturally and easily because their minds are

clear and receptive to information given to them and make instant connections.

- The teacher encourages and inspires the learners. He makes them feel that learning is not a formidable task, but it is a simple and enjoyable process.
- Suggestopedia Method gives importance to vocabulary recall and memorization of vocabulary pairs and it builds vocabulary by presenting it in the right context.
- In Suggestopedia Method, the learner concentrates on memorizing vocabulary, understanding and solving the problematic matters which may encounter the learners and hence they improve and develop themselves, become self-confident and get engaged in the process of learning.
- This method, if put in use skillfully by the teachers, could yield excellent expected results in the foreign language learning context.

Demerits of Suggestopedia Method

In spite of having many advantages, Suggestopedia Method, like any other method, appears to have its own drawbacks. They may be enumerated as follows:

- Suggestopedia Method is suitable for a certain group of learners only and not for all types of learners. It means that it may be suitable in certain teaching/learning contexts and not in all teaching contexts.

- Suggestopedia Method puts several challenging demands on both the teacher and the administration of the learning context as it involves them in preparing various types of teaching/learning material which might be beyond the reach of economically poor educational systems.
- It is not always possible to adapt the material available in foreign language teaching situations to suit the teaching/learning demands of Suggestopedia Method as they may be strange to the culture of the learners.
- Some learners may drag the relaxing and entertaining effects of Suggestopedia Method out of its main purposes and waste the time of the class.

Total Physical Response

Background

N. Chomsky's theories influenced the practitioners' circles in the field of language teaching and pedagogy all over the world during the 1970s. Consequently, new teaching methods, approaches, theories, thoughts, hypothesis and proposals started appearing and adopting new trends in language teaching and learning. Those new trends were influenced by the concepts propagated by the humanist movement which gave due importance to comprehension and meaning; believed in the easy picking up of the meaning by the mind of the learner and took into consideration the importance of constructing the language in the mind of the learner through strategies that stimulate the mind of the learner of the target language and shaping his behavior in favor of communicating through it. Teaching thoughts, hypothesis and proposals started concentrating on the activities that lead towards communication through comprehension of the meaning. Thus, there was a clear departure from traditional methods and approaches towards new methods of teaching/learning languages such as Silent Way, Suggestopedia, Natural Approach and Community Language Learning which influenced practitioners' circles. Total Physical Response Method

(TPR) was one of those methods. It was devised in the mid of the 1960s, by Asher, James; a professor of psychology at San Jose State University, California. It originated from Asher's observations and his early hypotheses of language acquisition. In 1977, Asher released the Book: 'Learning Another Language Through Actions' which contained the main tests for TPR.

Theoretical Framework of TPR

In 1960s and 1970s researchers came up with the hypothesis that first the learners develop understanding skill in the target language then they move forward to produce it verbally. In a teaching context which was gripped by such changing trends Asher, James conducted more than 30 experiments. He observed and analyzed the process of Japanese and Russian teaching and found that the applications of TPR approach in teaching can induce students' high-speed understanding. He assumes that during the process of doing exercises, learners have chance to express themselves by means of physical actions. Asher, James thought that because of the critical property of the left brain, those learners who take a "watch-the-performance" attitude, participate in the performance and gradually make progress through doing actions. Octaviany, Y. (2007), reported Garcia, R. (2001), when he explained TPR by saying that "the two very important concepts in TPR are the notion of Total Physical Response involvement and the role played by the

right hemisphere of the brain in learning a second language by action.” Asher, James (1977), argues that “the adult should proceed to language mastery through right-hemisphere motor activities, while the left hemisphere watches and learns.” He attempted to find out the reasons why TPR could promote high-speed understanding and improve a good memory. Asher, James (1969), excluded some factors which may affect the effectiveness and speed of TPR. These factors include:

- location, which means the location of the teaching instruments in the class during exercise;
- interflow, which means the learner gets into action before he has finished listening to instructions;
- sequence, which means that the instruction may indicate what the latter one is.

Through the analysis of data, Asher, James drew the conclusion that learners’ physical actions are the most important factor. Asher, James (1979), states that “the assimilation of information and skills can be significantly accelerated through the use of the kinesthetic sensory system.” Asher, James (1977), elaborated an account of what facilitates or inhibits foreign language learning. According to Asher, James (1977), second language teaching and learning should reflect the naturalistic processes of first language learning. For this reason, there are three processes which are central to natural process of

language acquisition. They are as follows:

- (1) Children develop listening competence before they develop the ability to speak at the early stage of first language acquisition. They can understand complex utterances that they cannot spontaneously produce or imitate.
- (2) Children's ability in listening comprehension is acquired because children are acquired to respond physically to spoken language in the form of parental commands.
- (3) Once a foundation in listening comprehension has been established, speech evolves naturally and effortlessly out of it.

Assumptions of TPR Method

According to Asher, James (2001a; 2001b), Total Physical Response is based on the premise that the human brain has a biological program for acquiring natural languages on earth, including the sign-language of the deaf. Asher, James assume that Total Physical Response in its own right was directed to right-brain learning whereas most language teaching methods were directed to the left-brain learning. On the basis of such assumptions, he gave three rather influential hypotheses for language learning theory. They are as follows:

1. There is a specific innate bio-program for language learning which defines an optimal path for first and second language development.

2. Brain lateralization undertakes the task of defining different learning functions in the left-and-right-brain hemispheres.

3. Stress (an affective filter) negatively intervenes between the act of learning and what is to be learned. Hence, the lower the stress, the greater the learning.

Like Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response Method emphasized the need to make learners as relaxed as it may be possible during the learning process. According to Asher, James an important aspect for successful language learning achievement is the complete absence of stress and strain. He believes that mother tongue is generally acquired in a stress-free situation whereas adult learning or foreign language learning creates a kind of stress and anxiety that hampers the process of smooth learning. Therefore, the key to successful learning of the target language according to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), is to “tap into the natural bio-program for language development and thus recapture the relaxed and pleasurable experiences that accompany first language learning.” It can be said that Total Physical Response is a resurrection and extension of Palmer’s *English Through Actions*. It derived references from modern trends of psychological theories.

In fact, the popularity TPR enjoyed is the result of the popularity of those who emphasized on the role of comprehension in target language learning as well as the

humanistic and psycho-suggestive nature of the method itself. Asher, James believes that the imperative of the verb to be extremely important since, he says, children initially respond to language by responding to commands. This method is, therefore, also referred to as “the Comprehension Approach” because it gives emphasis on listening comprehension prior to production. Total Physical Response (TPR) method is a “natural method” in a sense that second language learner follows the naturalistic process of first language learning.

Asher, James (2006), is of the view that if teaching circles want to make learning effective, then the method used should be active enough to deliver the task of learning. The learners should be given language tasks that will improve their listening comprehension skills because the more they understand the language, the more they are likely to produce it. Though Total Physical Response Method believes that the learner should learn how the target language operates in order to have automatic production skill, nevertheless, it paid attention to meaning rather than to the form of items. It means that it addresses both the process of learning and final output of learning itself.

It is clear that Total Physical Response relied upon both, Comprehension/Production-based Learning assumptions in addition to Humanistic and Psycho-suggestive approaches. Comprehension-Based Learning (CBL) stresses that the learner should communicate less

and understand more of what is being said. Whereas in Production-based Learning (PBL) students are involved in the process of learning. In Humanistic and Psycho-suggestive Approaches learners are put in real-life situations which create a close bond between and among the learners and make them communicate with each other naturally. Asher's emphasis on developing comprehension skills before the learner starts producing the language links him to movements in foreign language teaching such as the Natural Approach, Self-Instructional Program, The Lexical Approach, etc. They share the belief that:

- Comprehension abilities always precede productive skills in learning a language whether the mother tongue or the second/foreign language.
- The teaching of speaking should be delayed until the comprehension skills are established in the learner.
- Skills acquired through listening transfer to other skills and help to develop and foster them.
- Teaching should emphasize on getting acquainted with meaning of the language rather than wasting time in dealing with the mechanical form of the language.
- Learning should be accompanied with compatible physical response to foster the meaning of what is being taught.
- Teaching should minimize learners' stress and tension so as to increase their level of motivation to learn the target language.

Asher, James (1977), believed that the interactions between parents and children which takes the form of speech from a parent is usually followed by a physical response from the child. In other words, the child apprehends his parents' utterances and respond to them through physical movement. He observed that children are not able to speak until they listen to language for a long time. A child usually listens to a lot of language before it attempts to speak it. For many months, children absorb the language without being able to speak; this is the internalization and code-breaking period. After this period, children start reproducing the language spontaneously.

Thus, Total Physical Response Method believes that child language learning is based on motor activity and coordinating the process of language learning with action. Hence, Total Physical Response Method derives from the process of language acquisition and tries to assimilate the way the child responds to language physically before it actually begins to speak it. It attempts to apply it in language learning also.

In other words, associating language production and physical actions in the process of learning is thought to provide conducive conditions for success in language learning. Asher, James (1977), says, "The movement of the body seems to be a powerful mediator for the understanding, organization and storage of macro-details of linguistic input. Language can be internalised in

chunks, but alternative strategies must be developed for fine-tuning to macro-details.” It means that Total Physical Response Method is based on learning through body movement and therefore, Asher, J., believes that this should also form the basis of adult foreign language teaching/learning strategy. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), Asher, James who developed this method “...sees successful adult second language learning as a parallel process to child first language acquisition.” Therefore, even grown-up people can learn the target language in the same manner the child learns his own mother tongue.

Thus, it is very clear that TPR employs physical response to language to facilitate the process of language learning. From Asher’s reflection on the mechanism of natural language acquisition, he linked physical responses with linguistic elements and hypothesized that in the process of language learning, kinetic and physically active response is superior to the vocal response. He bases these assumptions on his belief in the existence in the human brain of a bio-program for language, which defines an optimal order for first and second language learning. Asher, James (1977), says, “A reasonable hypothesis is that the brain and nervous system are biologically programmed to acquire language ... in a particular sequence and in a particular mode. The sequence is listening before speaking and the mode is to synchronize language with the individual’s body.”

Total Physical Response Method believes that a lot of listening precedes actual production. It believes that sufficient exposure to the language makes the mind of the learner process the language and gradually the learner starts producing meaningful sentences. Learners may understand what the teacher says, but they need some time to speak like their teacher. This means that learning a language is not just a mechanical repetition of some known sentences. The learners should be able to understand new words, phrases and sentences and be able also to put them together to produce intelligible language. Thus, Total Physical Response Method seems to say that to begin teaching a language by pressuring the learner to have an early production of the target language, negatively, affects the whole process of natural learning. Total Physical Response Method believes that once the learner learns how the target language operates, then, speaking becomes almost automatic. Hence, learners learn in two ways; by observing what the teacher is doing and by doing the actions themselves. It means that the teacher should act and allow learners to act like him.

It is very clear that like Silent Way Method, Total Physical Response Method also emphasizes the need for a 'silent phase', in which there is an acquired listening comprehension waiting for the spoken production to 'emerge' of its own accord. The other three methods that follow this theoretical framework are:

1. Krashen and Terrell's 'Natural Approach'

2. Winitz, H. and J. Reed's (1973), 'Self-instructional Programme'
3. 'The Lexical Approach' of Michael, Lewis.

All these methodological trends including James, Asher's Total Physical Response assume that a lot of listening precedes actual production stage. Learners of the target language require a great deal of time to understand the language and develop their comprehension skill in the same. Then only they would be able to produce the language they comprehended because the more they listen to language, the more they understand it. Therefore, Total Physical Response Method offers a less demand and more comfortable route to achieve comprehension skill which is considered as the foundation for the learning of communicative skills.

It very clear that Asher, James drew from a variety of areas, including psychology, learning theories and humanistic pedagogies. Total Physical Response Method drew on the 'trace theory' of memory in psychology which postulates that memory is stimulated and increased when it is closely associated with motor activity. Therefore, the more often and intensively a memory is traced, the stronger the memory association will be established and the more likely it will be easily recalled. Thus, Total Physical Response Method depends on physical response to language as the means to facilitate language learning. At the same time, a substantial amount of listening and comprehension is combined with

physical responses before learners begin to produce the language. Thus, Total Physical Response Method is built around the coordination of speech and physical action. In other words, the Total Physical Response Method drew on constructivist principles as it was concerned with constructing the target language in the mind of the learner by linking the physical activity with language learning process. The method drew also on the principles of language acquisition by taking into account the way children respond to language physically before they begin to speak.

Principles of TPR Method

This method of language teaching was developed on the principle of Asher, James (1977), that, “A method that is undemanding in terms of linguistic production and that involves game like movements reduces learner stress, and creates a positive mood in the learner, which facilitates learning.” Asher, James (1977), adapted the principles of first language acquisition to second language learning: (a) “Understanding the spoken language should be developed in advance of speaking”; (b) “Understanding should be developed through movements of the student’s body”; and (c) without being forced, “The individual will spontaneously begin to produce utterances.” Thus, Asher, James (1977), as the developer of TPR, elaborates the principles of this method. They are as follows:

- 1) Second or foreign language learning should be parallel to the first language acquisition and reflect the same naturalistic process.
- 2) Children learn best by doing things.
- 3) Listening should be developed before speaking.
- 4) Once listening comprehension has been developed, speech develops naturally and effortlessly out of it.
- 5) Delaying speech reduces stress.

Asher James, Kusudo J. A. and De la Torre R. (1974), say,

- “1. When should stress comprehension rather than production at the beginning levels of second language instruction with no demand on the learners to generate the target structure themselves.
2. We should obey the ‘here and now’ principle.
3. We should provide input to the learners by getting them to carry commands. These commands should be couched in the imperative.”

Total Physical Response Method based its principles on the way a child acquires the first language. Like Suggestopedia, it emphasized on stress-free learning process and environment which must be loaded with fun and joy. While Suggestopedia was concerned with searching solutions to psychological factors that hamper and hinder the process of learning, Total Physical Response Method claimed that language learning can be made more effective by linking language and motor activity. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S.

(1986), “Total Physical Response is a language teaching method built around the coordination of speech and action, it attempts to teach language through physical (motor) activity.”

Fernandes, Arung (2012), point out some principles of TPR that should be put into account when we are teaching a foreign language by using this method. They are as follows:

- It is essential to prepare a script for what you want to do, as it is extremely important not to change the language half way through. It is also important to recombine previously learned language in new ways. These factors, combined with the pace necessary for successful TPR instruction, mean that it is extremely difficult to improvise the commands.
- TPR instruction should be seen as a progression, with new language being added to and combined with the old every session.
- On a similar note, previously learned language should be reviewed and cycled into lessons constantly in order to reinforce it.
- While it can be useful to introduce synonyms, it is extremely important that the language not be changed half-way through a session. This is extremely confusing for students.
- In order for students to relax and feel comfortable, during TPR practice the teacher should project a friendly and positive manner.

- It is very important to limit the number of new items in order to avoid student overload and to allow students to process and absorb the language. New and old language should be manipulated in a variety of ways in order to give students a large amount of practice.
- Once students are used to TPR practice, introducing a limited amount of humor into the class can greatly increase students' interest and enjoyment.
- Students should not be forced to repeat the commands or otherwise speak until they are ready.
- Students should not need help with the TPR commands, as the meaning should be obvious from context/the teachers' explanation/previously learned language. Translating commands into Japanese reverts to left brain input, and the benefits of TPR are lost. Student listening abilities are also not improved.
- The goals are to provide an enjoyable learning experience, having a minimum of the stress that typically accompanies learning a foreign language.
- The teacher gives commands and students follow them. Once students are ready to speak, they take on directing roles.
- Lessons begin with commands by the teacher and students demonstrate their understanding by acting these out. Teachers recombine their instructions in novel and often humorous ways, and eventually students follow suit. Activities later include games and skits.

- The method was developed principally to reduce the stress associated with language learning. Students are not forced to speak before they are ready and learning is made as enjoyable as possible, stimulating feelings of success and low anxiety.
- Oral modality is primary and culture is the lifestyle of native speakers of the target language.
- Grammatical structures and vocabulary are emphasized, imbedded in imperatives. Understanding precedes production. Spoken language precedes the written words.
- Method is introduced in students' native language, but rarely used later in course. Meaning is made clear through actions.
- Teachers can evaluate students through simple observation of their actions. Formal evaluation is achieved by commanding a student to perform a series of actions.
- Students are expected to make errors once they begin speaking. Teachers only correct major errors and do this unobtrusively. Fine tuning occurs later.

Features and Characteristics of TPR Method

The most distinctive feature of TPR method is that it proposes a kind of the synchronization of words in the target language with the learners' body movements and actions. It regards such a synchronization process as the best way for teaching/learning the target language

vocabulary and for increasing the learners' retaining and recalling ability as well. To achieve that synchronization, Total Physical Response Method gives learners ample and sufficient time to listen and comprehend the target language. It also makes a full investment of the environment of the classroom, brings teaching aids, presents tasks to the learners and makes learners comprehend meaning through actions and body movement. According to Feng, Shan-shan (2017), "TPR method can stimulate students' interest and make them actively participate in learning, which is appropriate for foreign language beginners in primary schools."

Total Physical Response Method tolerates errors as it considers that learners are bound to commit errors and errors are considered to be the natural by-products of the process of learning itself. Therefore, in a TPR lesson, the teacher should not stop the learners in order to correct them as such a step from the teacher would keep their inhibitions high. The teacher should tolerate learners' errors so as to keep their inhibitions low. Addressing the teacher, Asher, James (1977), notes: "You begin with a wide tolerance for student speech errors, but as training progresses the tolerance narrows ... Remember that as students' progress in their training, more and more attention units are freed to process feedback from the instructor. In the beginning, almost no attention units are available to hear the instructor's attempts to correct distortions in speech. All attention is directed to

producing utterances. Therefore, the student cannot attend efficiently to the instructor's corrections.” Thus, Total Physical Response Method tries to understand why the learners committed errors so that it can correct them and devise ways to remedy learning defects.

Asher, James focused on two characteristics of first language acquisition which is written in Nunan's book (1991a) which claims:

“1. The child gets a vast amount of comprehensible input before beginning to speak. Young children comprehend language which is far in excess of their ability to produce.
2. There is a lot of physical manipulation and action language accompanying early input. Throw the ball to Rudi', put your arm through here', etc. This action language, encouraging physical manipulation, is couched in the imperative.”

Asher, James (1977), reports that TPR is characterized by the association between language and actions. In fact, TPR is closely related to the behaviorist psychology because it integrates the action stimulus–response as support of the learning. This reminds us of the behavioristic psychology which considers Stimulus–response a model of learning. However, the stimulus in the TPR methods is verbal whereas the responses is physical.

According to Omaggio, A. (1986), the characteristics of TPR are as follows:

1. The teacher directs and the students 'act' in response.

2. Understanding of the spoken language must be developed in advance of speaking.
3. Understanding and retention is best achieved through movement of the students' bodies in response to commands.
4. Listening and physical response skills are emphasized over oral production.
5. Students should never be forced to speak before they are ready. As the target language is internalized, speaking will be emerged naturally.
6. Grammar and vocabulary are emphasized over other areas. Spoken language is emphasized over written language.
7. Whenever possible, humor is injected into the lessons to make the learners more comfortable in learning languages.

Feng, Shan-shan (2017), says, "The method has four main characteristics. Firstly, learning comprehension is preferred. Teachers are required to cultivate students' ability of listening comprehension in the first place, which is quite necessary for students' oral ability. Secondly, students are expected to improve their comprehension through physical response to language. Thirdly, Students are allowed to make a statement with preparation in advance; meanwhile, teachers do not force students to speak. Fourthly, teachers are supposed to pay attention to the significance of teaching rather than the form of teaching; they are supposed to teach the target

language by body action, which helps strengthen students' ability of thinking and enhance their learning efficiency, thus eliminating dumb English."

Objectives of TPR Method

The objective of Total Physical Response is to promote, in the learner, the skill of speaking from the beginning, but through maximizing the learner's ability to comprehend the target language. In fact, it considers comprehension as a means to an end. TPR was devised with the purpose of developing an efficient technique for teaching/learning of languages and increase the results of teaching-learning process of a second/foreign language, especially for children. It aims to teach oral skill and raise the comprehension level within the learner. According to Asher, James (1968), Total Physical Response was created to improve the learners' listening ability in a foreign language by giving a physical response when learners heard foreign command. Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), argues that TPR was developed in order to reduce the stress the learners might feel when they study foreign languages and thereby encourage learners to persist in their study beyond a beginning level of proficiency. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), declare that: "The general objectives of Total Physical Response are to teach oral proficiency at a beginning level. Comprehension is a mean to an end, and the ultimate aim is to give basic speaking skills. T.P.R. aims to produce

learners who are capable of an uninhibited communication that is intelligible to a native speaker.” To achieve this, the learner should be subjected to a substantial exposure to listening skill. Asher, James (1977), has a rationale behind this which is based on the idea that “everyday conversations are highly abstract and disconnected; therefore, to understand them requires a rather advanced internalization of the target language.” Thus, Total Physical Response Method is rooted in the constructivist principles as it is concerned with constructing language in the mind of the learner by subjecting the learner to ample comprehensible listening material that links activity and language together in a kind of synchronization of language with body movements and action. By synchronizing the words with learner’s body movement, as Thornbury, S. (2002), puts it, “the intention is to replicate the experience of learning one’s mother tongue.” Then, learners are encouraged to speak in the target language after a sufficient basis in the language has been internalized in a stress-free learning environment. Such an objective seems to be deriving from Krashen’s theory which considers the ‘comprehensible input’ and reduction of stress as keys to successful language learning. This fact is emphasized by Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), who declared that “T.P.R. was developed in order to reduce the stress people feel when studying foreign languages and thereby encourage students to persist in their study beyond a beginning level

of proficiency.” These are in line with Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986) statements that: “By focusing on meaning interpreted through movement, rather than language forms studied in abstract, the learner is said to be liberated from self-conscious and stressful situation and is able to devote full energy to learning.”

Material and Techniques of TPR Method

There is no specific course or texts in a Total Physical Response Method. It is a method in which listening comprehension is the basis of the teaching/learning course. In other words, it considers the bulk of the language in its spoken form as the core course for the learner. However, Asher, James has developed learners’ kits in the form of a course of 159 hours of classroom instruction for adult immigrants that focus on special situations. He provided about 200 commands for each kit design. For example: “Put the man in front of the sink.” They aimed to produce learners who are capable of an uninhibited communicative skill in the target language. Asher, James (1973), asserts that whoever tries the kits with his students would be surprised how much the students learn in a very short time. Asher, James (1973), says, “My sister and I recently tried one of the Students Kits with a native speaker of Arabic giving directions. We were both surprised at how much vocabulary and grammar we picked up in a few minutes of play. Try this with any language you would like to acquire from Turkish

to Chinese to Hebrew. It is simple, fast-moving, and it works!”

For the beginners, teacher’s voice, actions and gestures may be a sufficient basis for classroom activities that use action-based drills in the imperative form. Content of learning is given by the teacher who gives either familiar command such as: “Stand up” and “Sit down” or unfamiliar commands such as: “Stand on the chair” or “Sit on the table.” The main roles of learners in TPR are listening and performing. They should listen carefully and then react physically to commands given by the teacher. They are taught to understand both kinds of commands and create their own ones. Thus, the content is determined by the teacher who must follow the imperative-based format for lessons in the classroom so as to extract response from the learner. Asher, James (1977), states that, “most of the grammatical structure of the target language and hundreds of vocabulary items can be learned from the skillful use of the imperative by the instructor.” Advising the teacher on teaching material Asher James (1977), says, “It is wise to write out the exact utterances you will be using and especially the novel commands because the action is so fast-moving there is usually not time for you to create spontaneously.”

However, Asher, James believes that learners can acquire a “detailed cognitive map” as well as “the grammatical structure of a language” without recourse to abstractions. Asher, James (1991), assumes,

“Abstractions should be delayed until students have internalized a details cognitive map of the target language. Abstractions are not necessary for people to decode the grammatical structure of a language. Once students have internalized the target language.” At the same time, learners should not be forced to speak, but they should be left to speak when they feel ready, otherwise, they may feel embarrassed and lose interest in language learning.

Asher, James (1977), described TPR as an “instructional strategy that not only makes a second language learnable for most people, but enjoyable.” Teachers who use TPR method will find that learners enjoy learning through it. Asher, James says that the implementation of TPR is that the teacher gives commands to learners in foreign language, and then learner listen to those commands and immediately respond to them by doing some physical actions.

By adopting TPR, the language teacher tries to mimic the process of the child acquiring his own mother tongue in order to teach it the target language. Teachers combine body movement with target language learning in vivid teaching situations and teach the target language through body movement. Therefore, TPR method is perfectly suitable for target language beginners in primary schools.

Since children put their interest of learning mostly on physical activities, Total Physical Response method

might be a good alternative to teach many aspects of the target language such as listening comprehension which may contain vocabulary, sentences and short comprehension material from the target language. TPR employs playful and enjoyable activities in relation to the physical movement such as story-telling, playing games, role-plays, slide presentations and interacting with peers which includes laughing, body language and facial expressions that enable learners to study, play, comprehend the meaning of vocabulary, sentences short paragraphs and communicate with each other. According to Muhren, A. (2003), as cited by Handoyo, Puji Widodo (2005), the basic technique of TPR is simple. Learners act out commands given by the teacher or their fellow pupils (at a later stage). These commands or series of commands are simple at the beginning (stand up, sit down) but after sometime they may become more complex (I want the boys to stand in a circle please). A TPR sequence can be a chain of action relating to a compound task (take pen and paper, sit down, begin at the top of your paper, write down: Dear...) or even contain a story- line.

A Total Physical Response lesson typically involves the teacher demonstrating actions, using real objects so as to urge the learners to perform the same or similar actions in response to the given commands and employing tasks which may include projects for producing pictures, presentations, dramatic performances, films, etc. However, in such varied

learning activities, the teacher is very directive in managing the learners' performance in the classroom. He facilitates the activities of the learner. According Asher, James (1977), "The instructor is the director of a stage play in which the students are the actors." The instructor has to be a facilitator of learning and hence, has to show support. Blair, R. W. (1982), writes on this account, "If a student is baffled, do not press; but simply try the same command with another student or act it yourself." Thus, it can be said that Total Physical Response Method is a technique through which the teacher attempts to develop learners' language skills which the learners may use outside the learning context and thus show that they understand the language which is directed to them.

In Total Physical Response, the majority of class time in TPR lessons is spent doing drills. Therefore, learners are expected to be more active, creative and interactive. They have the primary roles of listener and performer on the basis of the same. For example, the teacher gives commands and the learners listen carefully and respond physically. They are required to respond both individually and collectively. Thus, the focus is on listening and responding non-verbally through actions. They perform multiple actions based on the sentences by seeing a link between the action and what the teacher says.

The teacher's role is not much to teach as to provide opportunities for learning through ready-made and

detailed utterances which will be used and fast-moving actions will be based on them. This provides exposure to language and the learner can internalize the way how the target language operates. Hence, the teacher helps to choose topics, encourages, regulates and monitors.

The classroom activities should be simple, achievable and enjoyable. The teacher, systematically, gives an order and learners, on their part, understand and follow it physically. The teacher guides the learners from simple to complex tasks. The teacher may use various aids such as cards with words or pictures on them and make the learners try to locate something on them. Therefore, initially, the order may be simple and represent isolated actions which have no connection with each other, e.g. stand up, sit down, etc. Then, as the teacher exposes the learners to the target language, he may start introducing a series of orders which contain many actions such as speaking about cooking, swimming, fishing, driving a car, etc. which are in the form of operations that can be broken into series of actions. Asher suggests that a fixed number of items can be introduced at a time to facilitate ease of differentiation and assimilation. Then, repetition and role reversal can consolidate the meaning within their perception. These activities can improve the learners' communication skill, help to solve real problems and offer learners actual reasons for learning a language. In this way, the learners do not only use a particular pattern of the target language or its vocabulary group, but

they are also guided to practice communication in the target language. Then, the teacher can assess and make out whether they have understood what has been taught to them or not.

Thus, learning through Total Physical Response is a kind of activity of problem-solving game in which the learners comprehend the simple and unconnected actions and then move on to perform more complex instructions that are based on a series of actions. According to Wang, Yiming (2004), Hu, Tieqiu (2000), teaching procedures of TPR are that teachers give instruction and do physical actions accordingly. Students just need to listen and observe. Teachers give instructions and do physical actions, and students do as what teachers have done. Then teachers give instructions without doing anything, and students do physical actions according to teachers' instructions. Finally, some learners give instructions and other students complete physical actions alone or with the help of teacher himself.

Asher, James has demonstrated in thousands of classrooms around the world that TPR is perhaps the most powerful tool in a teacher's linguistic tool box. Asher, James (1977), explains as follows: "It is powerful for three reasons. First, TPR works for almost all students of any age. Second, it is high speed language acquisition (students comprehend the target language in chunks rather than word by word). Third, study after study has shown that the skillful application of TPR results in long

term retention lasting up to years. My conclusion is: this powerful linguistic tool of TPR rates special attention in a course of its own followed up with practice by students in the field monitored by ‘personal trainers’ - the professional college teaching staff.” Asher, James claims that learning through TPR is very fast. According to Asher, James (1977), “In an hour, it is possible for students to assimilate 12 to 36 new lexical items depending upon the size of the group and the stage of training.”

Merits of TPR Method

Asher, James, in Linse, Caroline T. (2005), says that TPR has several positive aspects. First, it utilizes the auditory, visual, and tactile learning channel. Second, it helps to teach children to follow directions and listen attentively-two important skills for academic success. Third, in keeping with developmentally appropriate notions or thoughts, children are allowed to listen and then choose when they feel comfortable to start speaking. Fourth, this method can easily be adapted in many different ways for young learners.

Linse, Caroline T. (2006), argues that Total Physical Response can improve young learners’ listening comprehension because it has a principle that language learners learn best when they are directly involved in learning and understanding the language they hear. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), assume that this

method can help the learners to reduce their stress because learners can enjoy their learning activity.

Handoyo, Puji Widodo (2005), listed eight advantages of using TPR approach. They are as follows:

- a. TPR has a lot of fun as learners enjoy it and it can lift the pace of a lesson and the mood;
- b. TPR is a memorable activity as it assists students to recognize phrases or words;
- c. It is good for kinesthetic learners who are required to be active in class;
- d. It can be used both in a large class or in a small class because as long as the teacher takes the lead, the learners will follow;
- e. It works well with mixed-ability classes because the physical actions get across the meaning effectively so that all learners are able to comprehend and apply the target language;
- f. There is no requirement of preparing a lot of preparation or materials. The most important part is being competent of what you want to practise;
- g. It is very effective with teenagers and young learners;
- h. TPR involves both left and right-brained learning.

Thus, the merits of Total Physical Response Method may be enumerated as follows:

- It is an easy, simple and accessible method which can be used by a wide range of teachers and in a wide range of learning environments.

- It does not require a great deal of preparation on the part of the teacher.
- It creates conducive atmosphere for language learning which is enjoyable for the teachers as well as the young children.
- It is characterized by high-speed understanding of any target language, long-term retention and zero stress.
- It is effective for beginners of the target language such as children.
- It emphasizes on the role of comprehension in learning the target language, thus, it assimilates the process of first language acquisition.
- It contains a useful set of techniques and procedures that are compatible with other approaches and methods of teaching languages.
- It stimulated the specialized circles of the development of syllabuses for teaching various languages and provided psychological depth into learning the target language.
- It is successful for short-term language courses of learning the target language in places such as nurseries and kindergartens.
- It is appropriate in teaching environments which have mixed-nationalities classes and where translation is not an option in the process of teaching/learning.
- It is a good tool for learning vocabulary as it facilitates presentation and teaching/learning process.

- The size of the class is not a problem as large numbers of children can react together to the teaching material.

Demerits of TPR Method

It is important to know that Total Physical Response Method is not a comprehensible and independent method that can act alone to accomplish the task of target language teaching. Asher, James himself has never claimed that his method alone can solve the problems of teaching/learning the target language. Rather, he has emphasized that Total Physical Response Method should be used in collaboration with other methods and techniques. In fact, TPR Method assumptions may even be effective for reasons other than those suggested by Asher, James himself. In other words, TPR Method assumptions do not necessarily demand adherence to the learning assumptions which are used to justify them. Therefore, teachers may follow the learning assumptions set by it and make them useful set of techniques that may be compatible with other approaches and methods of language teaching. Asher, James (1977), himself makes it explicit that a TPR approach to language teaching should be used in combination with other methods. He writes on this account: “We are not advocating only one strategy of learning. Even if the imperative is the major or minor format of training, variety is critical for maintaining student interest. The imperative is a power facilitator of learning, but it should be used in combination with many

other techniques.”

Proponents of communicative language teaching have questioned the relevance of the sentences and utterances acquired during TPR lessons to real-life. Oller, J. W. and Ricard-Amato, P. A. (1983), express their reservations when they write: “it is questionable whether a unidimensional approach could be satisfying to students for an extended period of time.” Though this concern is general, it seems to be particularly addressed to TPR given that this method falls short of expectation as learners, according to Oller, J. W. and Ricard-Amato, P. A. (1983), leave the program “with little or no contact with speaking, reading and writing.”

The main criticisms which were voiced against Total Physical Response Method are as follows:

- The experimental support for the effectiveness of Total Physical Response Method is rather sketchy and not in the form of detailed and comprehensive teaching method.
- Total Physical Response Method typically deals with only the very beginning stages of learning the target language in a very general way which makes it suitable for teaching children only. The way the child physically reacts to language can't be demanded from elders also. Thus, it is for small children only and doesn't suit adult learners.
- Total Physical Response Method proved to be slow and less effective for developing adult learner's

communicative skill or what is called global proficiency in the target language as the method can't demand from adult learners to react to language exactly the way small children react to language.

- Total Physical Response Method failed to make all learners capable of using the target language to perform daily communicative functions of the language in real-life situations.
- Total Physical Response Method failed to have a tangible result in foreign language teaching context where even the beginner children may not get sufficient exposure to the language through the limited procedures prescribed by the TPRM and the inefficiency of the teaching circles.
- In Total Physical Response Method, learners are not given the opportunity to express their own views and thoughts in a creative way in spontaneous communicative situations.
- Total Physical Response Method is a challenging way of learning for shy and timid learners.
- Total Physical Response Method is not a very creative method because even if the child reacts to language physically and learns something, the language learnt will not transcend the stage of mere imitation.
- Total Physical Response Method is limited, since everything cannot be explained with this method through physical response. It must be combined with other methods and approaches.

Whole Language Approach

Origin of Whole Language Approach

The Whole Language Approach (WLA) is a theme-oriented approach in learning language. It was developed by Goodman, K. S. in the 1980s. It was viewed as an important language theory during the 1980s and became popular for some time in Western countries for teaching mother tongues. According to Hedgecock, Jogn and Sandra, Pucci (1994), at the very beginning, Whole Language Approach was mainly used to deal with the study of the mother tongue, but since the 1990's, it began to be used in foreign language teaching contexts. Tang, Lixing (1998), Rigg, P. (1991), Freeman, D. and Freeman, Y. (1988), Hedgecock, Jogn and Sandra, Pucci (1994), Redmond, M. L. (1994) and Adair-Hauck, B. (1996), all wrote papers to discuss how to apply this trend of teaching of English as a second language.

However, the Whole Language Approach is not an approach or simply a method, it not a program of hierarchical components or a pedagogy and it is not a measure or an activity. It is, rather, a philosophy which describes how language, literacy, teaching and learning are viewed. It is a faith, an attitude and a philosophy related to teaching/learning of languages. Its major emphasis is that language is 'whole.' 'Whole Language'

was chosen as the name of this approach because it is based on all aspects of language learning.

The philosophy of Whole Language Approach is complex. It has a relation with an approach called 'language experience' which became popular in the mid-1960's and this makes it to be a hub of theories and assumptions from various teaching/learning thoughts. In fact, Whole Language Approach is an amalgam of theories, assumption, beliefs, perspectives and researches about language teaching/learning. In other words, Whole Language Approach draws from many disciplines such as education, linguistics, psychology, sociology, anthropology, psycholinguistic and philosophy.

Definition of WLA

Due to the connections of Whole Language Approach with different disciplines, it has been described in different terms by different scholars. It has been described as being an approach by Mosenthal, P. B. (1989); a belief by Farris, P. J. and Kaczmariski, D. (1988); a method by Hajek, E. (1984); a philosophy by Brontas, Maria (1987); an orientation by Richards, Gipe, and Thompson, (1987); a theory by Reutzel, D. R. and Hollingsworth, P. M. (1988); a theoretical orientation by Edelsky C., Draper K. and Smith, K. (1983); a program by Slaughter, H. (1988); a curriculum by Mersereau Y., Glover M. and Cherland M. (1989); a perspective on education by Watson, D. (1989) and an attitude of mind

by Rich, S. J. (1985). Even Goodman, K. S.; a major proponent of Whole Language Approach whom many consider a founding father of the Whole Language Approach, has described the Whole Language Approach in different terms through different periods. He considered it as a theory in 1979, as an approach in 1987 and as a philosophy in 1989.

Therefore, the Whole Language Approach can't be easily and briefly defined in one or two sentences as it is not merely a kind of teaching method or a kind of teaching skill. Some researchers like Cornett, C. and Blankenship, L. (1990); Trenholm, D. S. (1992), defined Whole Language Approach by comparing a Traditional and a Whole Language classroom and looking at how practices differ. However, the definition given by Goodman, K. S. (1986), is the most well-known. Goodman, K. S. (1986) calls Whole Language Approach as "a way of bringing together a view of language, a view of learning, a view of people." Goodman, K. S. (1986), believe that children's language learning ability is inherent. He stated that Whole Language education is a way of thinking in which children's language development and learning are considered as a whole. Whole Language Approach, according to Goodman, K. S. (1986), is a set of beliefs that guide classroom practice. It is a set of principles directing classroom teaching. Goodman, K. S. (1986), describes Whole Language Approach as a philosophy rather than as a series of prescribed activities. Froses, V.

(1991), defines ‘whole language’ as a child-centered, literature-based approach to language teaching that immerses students in real communicative situations whenever possible. Thus, the concept of Whole Language Approach is strongly associated with the work of Goodman, K. S. (1967). Goodman’s conceptualization departs from an older perspective on reading acquisition in that it sees the process of learning to read as a behavioral and maturing process.

A Theoretical Approach of Integrating Skills

The strongest point of Whole Language Approach is that it regards language as a whole and thus it avoids many controversial issues in the traditional teaching methods. Traditional language teaching mainly cultivates language knowledge such as pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary and basic language abilities such as listening, speaking, reading and writing separately.

According to educational psychologists, in order to enable learners to gain perceptual knowledge and clear ideas, the teacher should guide them to conduct a careful study of the passage that they are going to learn and then the teacher should guide them to study every part of the passage and the relationships among the parts. He should direct them to use the target language to shift the emphasis from learning the whole to learning the parts after they get the whole understanding of the language they are learning. If they do so, they will get a clear idea about the

object of study concerned. This process is, in fact, the theoretical basis of the ‘whole language’ theory.

Tan, Xiugui, (1996), says that the famous psychologist Piaget, J. points out that people’s language ability is developed gradually during the course of probing the world around them actively. The famous psychologist found that people learn language skills through communicating and exchanging ideas in language with other people. Therefore, the Whole Language Approach insists that only by putting language knowledge and language abilities into rich, real, natural language environments can learners gradually exchange ideas and master the target language.

The Whole Language Approach is also based on constructivist learning theory and it is often considered a top-down model. In this process, learners learn the target language on the basis of the comprehension of the known one. They do not merely resort to understanding of the parts. They put the emphasis on the whole language, understand it and then go to understanding the parts. This means that if learners start by focusing on letters, lists of words or grammar patterns, they will lose the essence of what language is. Therefore, Whole Language Approach is less focused on rules and repetition at the beginning. Thus, in whole-language philosophy, literacy develops, as Goodman, K. S. (1986), puts it “from whole to part, from vague to precise, from highly concrete and contextualized to more abstract, from familiar contexts to unfamiliar.”

According to Myers, J. W. (1993), Whole Language Approach begins by presenting the whole and then helping the learner master its parts as need dictates. Thus, learning through ‘wholes’ makes the experience more meaningful and inclusive. According to Fountas, Irene C. and Hannigan, Irene L. (1989), “Whole language empowers children to take responsibility for their own reading, writing, speaking, listening and thinking in the learning process. As they take risks to explore the function of language, they interweave each of the language arts in meaningful, purposeful, functional ways.” This means that Whole Language Approach focus is not only on the cultivation of the verbal ability, but also on carrying out reading, listening, speaking and writing activities skillfully.

In Whole Language Approach, the ‘whole’ is not merely the sum of all the parts. It is deeper than this. Goodman, K. S. points out that though speaking occupies a very important place in children’s language ability, it is untrue that the comprehension, reading and writing ability are not developed until the speaking ability is fully developed. Language teaching should begin with dealing with the whole and then shift to dealing with the parts gradually. It means that it is unwise to develop listening, reading, speaking and writing abilities separately. Goodman, K. S. (1991), assume that these abilities develop side by side with the speaking ability. In this ‘language experience’ approach there is a firm link

between oral language and written language and between reading and writing. Weaver, C. (1988), summarizes it as “Anything I can say, I can write; anything I can write, I can read.” Thus, Whole Language Approach is an approach to, or attitude toward, learning that considers language as a whole entity. It considers that writing, speaking, reading and listening should be integrated together for the purpose of learning the whole language. In Whole Language Approach, listening, speaking, reading and writing are indispensable and interrelated. Thus, the Whole Language Approach is a language learning model that teaches listening, speaking, reading and writing skills in an integrated and holistic way. Lamb, H. and Best, D. (1990), when a teacher integrates these skills, he or she maximizes learning time while exposing students to the many forms of language.

According to Stahl, S. and Miller, P. (1989), the Whole Language Approach proponents claimed that language should not be broken down into letters and combinations of letters and decoded items. According to Freeman, Yvonne S. and Freeman, David E. (1992), the parts of language (pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary, etc.) have no meanings when they are isolated from each other. Moats, L. (2007), says that language is a complete system of making meaning, with words functioning in relation to each other in context. Therefore, language should not be separated into pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.

Oxford, R. (1990), maintains, “acquiring a new language necessarily involves developing the four primary skills of listening, reading, speaking and writing in varying degrees and combinations. These four skills also include associated skills, such as knowledge of vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation, syntax, meaning, and usage.” Thus, according to this approach listening, speaking, thinking, remembering, reading and writing take place together in this approach as they are interrelated and interactive with each other. Reading and writing are social activities just like listening and speaking. If learners work on all these skills together, they can learn them more effectively. According to Whole Language Approach reading should not be taught as an isolated skill of connecting symbols and sounds. It must be connected to life experience, meaningful activities and the learner’s goals through discussion, speaking, listening, and writing. According to Jacobs, Leland B. (1989), “whole language is both a force and an outcome, a process and a product... Whole language means a person is using all aspects of verbal or written communication at his or her disposal to think sometimes literally, sometimes inferentially, sometimes aesthetically, but always evaluatively and critically.”

Whole language keeps, as Brountas, Maria (1989), puts it “language whole. The children are immersed in language as they listen, speak, write and read throughout the school day. However, it is their own language upon

which instruction is built. Whole language is a trend of teaching reading that emphasizes literature and text comprehension. The children are given experiences that include stories, paragraphs and sentences written in natural language. Natural language ... is based on the way people talk. Letters, sound patterns and words are not used in isolation, but in the context of language that is real and whole.”

Assumptions of WLA

Whole Language Approach assumes that children learn from the whole to parts. It believes that the whole is easier than the parts. Therefore, the Whole Language Approach assumes that language knowledge and language skills should be taught from the easy ones to the difficult ones. Goodman, K. S. (1986), identified its key assumptions. He considers that the Whole Language is a philosophy, perspective and world view. Whole Language is a philosophy about how language learning happens. The Whole Language Approach based its assumptions on the fact that children do not learn language from its fragments such as articulation, words, etc. Goodman, K. S. (1976), argue that phonic skills should be taught within the context of three systems used to extract meaning from print. Shone, Jeffrey (2002), stated that the philosophy behind the Whole Language Approach is to make reading more meaningful to the learner through varied real-life applications. Shone,

Jeffrey (2002), says that by making reading more meaningful and as enjoyable, learners would achieve superior reading competency scores as opposed to learners who receive phonics-based instruction which was the base of instruction in some methods. Rejecting the phonetic approach to reading Watson, D. (1989), says, "Phonics is incompatible with a whole language perspective on reading and therefore is rejected." They assume that the phonetic approach delays the learning of some people as it starts with pieces of language rather than a whole meaningful message. Badger, L. (1984), goes to the extent of assuming that "phonic information ... is most powerfully learned through the process of writing."

Whole Language Approach assumes that learning occurs when information is presented as a whole rather than divided into smaller components. It assumes that when information is presented as a whole it becomes meaningful. It believes that activities occur within a social context while the learner is active. Whole Language Approach advocates, such as Goodman, K. S. (1986), (1990), (1992); Weaver, C. (1990), Edelsky C., Altwerger B. and Flores, B. (1991), Schwarzer, D. (2001), Brooks-Harper, G. and Shelton, P. W. (2003), Blake, R. (1990), Teale, W. H. (1992) and Hoffman, J. V. (1992), assume that language (oral and written) functions to serve authentic purposes by facilitating meaningful communication. Therefore, Whole Language Approach

claims that language knowledge and skills should be cultivated wholly and in natural language environment. Hence, in the Whole Language Approach learners are allowed to make errors. In fact, Whole Language theorists see error correction as an unnecessary interruption to the learning process in general and comprehension process in particular.

Adams, M. J. (1991), claims, Whole Language Approach movement: "... should be a core component of a long overdue and highly constructive revolution. It should be about restoring the confidence and authority of teachers. It should be an affirmation that education can only be as effective as it is sensitive to the strengths, interests and needs of its students."

Stanovich, K. E. and Stanovich, P. J. (1999), echo this sentiment when they say, "The way now seems clear for the whole language advocates to reconstitute their position in a scientifically respectable way. They could retain most of their broad socio-educational goal (teacher empowerment, equal opportunity for all learners, engaged learning, etc.)."

Features of WLA

Goodman, K. S. (1986), identified those features of Whole Language Approach:

- Whole-language learning builds around whole learners learning whole language in whole situations.
- Whole-language learning assumes respect for language,

for the learner, and for the teacher.

- The focus is on meaning and not on language itself, in authentic speech and literacy events.
- Learners are encouraged to take risks and invited to use language, in all its varieties, for their own purposes.
- In a whole-language classroom, all the varied functions of oral and written language are appropriate and encouraged.

Material of WLA

The materials used in Whole Language Approach should be authentic. According to Goodman, K. S. (1992), "Whole language is producing a holistic reading and writing curriculum which uses real, authentic literature and real books. It puts learners in control of what they read and write about. But it also produces new roles for teachers and learners and a new view of how learning and teaching are related." Commenting on the holistic way to teach reading Rigg, P. (1991), says, "What began as a holistic way to teach reading has become a movement for change, key aspect of which are respect for each teacher as a professional."

Authentic materials are appealing to adults because they know that they are challenges that they will eventually encounter in order to survive. Some examples are, according to Brockman, B. (1994), are bus schedules, recipes, and news reports. Goodman, K. S. (1986) reports that when shown familiar environmental print, such as

cereal boxes, familiar logos and signs, 60% of 3 years old and 80 percent of 5 years old could read. Thus, it is clear that before any concepts associated with the fine-grained decoding of text can hold any significance, children do need to have a more basic awareness of print. Ungraded dialogue journals provide a “non-threatening, comfortable environment in which to write.” In addition to this, Whole Language Approach activities are applicable to daily life. For example, an activity such as a dialogue journal promotes writing development through conversation; an everyday activity. This is motivating to the adult learner and perceived by him as positive.

Rigg, P. (1991), assumes, “Language use is always set in a social context, and this applies to both oral and written language, to both first and second language use.” ‘Whole Language Instruction’ also known as ‘Literature-based Literacy Instruction.’ Whole Language Approach classrooms tend to teach the process of reading. Goodman, K. S. (1986), stated that reading and writing involve children learning in any social context that enables them to develop literacy before they start formal school instruction in reading and writing. Reading and writing are considered social events and discussion is encouraged. Quality children’s literature holds, according to Lantolf, J. (2006), a prominent place, as learners and teachers read it and make connections for discussion writing, further reading and listening purposes. Learners as well as the teacher read, write, talk and listen in

authentic situations.

According to Gambrell, L. B., et al. (2002), the use of literature is related to the development of oral and written language and may also have a positive effect on children's attitudes toward reading. A Whole Language classroom is a print-rich environment and provides a more print-rich environment for children to interact with so as to relate children's lives to their learning. According to Moustafa, Margaret (1993), instruction should work to increase the number of print words that learners recognize. In fact, Whole Language Instruction, which uses whole literature texts and natural language experiences such as shared storybook reading, etc., reflects and embodies this idea. The approach emphasizes that learners should focus on meaning. It stresses the flow of the text and its meaning, emphasizes the reading for meaning and using language in ways that relate to the learners' own lives and cultures. The 'sounding out' of words is not used in whole language.

WLA is Attractive for Adults Learners

Brockman, B. (1994) and Rigg, P. (1991), believe that the Whole Language Approach is an attractive approach to adults for several reasons. The adults who have life-experiences for many years respond well to a classroom environment that asks them to do something. They feel that this is an atmosphere to which they are accustomed. Moreover, an adult looks for a

purpose or usefulness in the lesson given to him whereas a child performs simply because it is told to perform. According to Brockman, B. (1994), “Learners need to see a purpose in their activities, and it must be their purpose, not the teacher’s.” Brockman, B. (1994), says that in the Whole Language classroom, learners socialize naturally as they do in the real world and are thus creating meaningful experiences. Brockman, B. (1994), provides practical reasons why the Whole Language Approach is appropriate for adult learners. He says that adult learners have an extensive bank of life experiences. It means that adult learners have much to write, read and talk about. This is an advantage to adult learners in a classroom setting where students are asked to draw meaning from their background knowledge. In other words, focusing on meaning means the Whole Language Approach focuses on a strength of adult learners. This may go hand in hand with the Whole Language philosophy says that, as Brockman, B. (1994), puts it, “meaning is not something that a reader gets from the language; rather, the reader brings meaning to the language.” Brockman, B. (1994), points out that ESL learners can comfortably practice using English in an environment that is welcoming and safe.

Teacher’s Role in WLA

In Whole Language Approach, there are no distinct procedures for teachers to follow. According to

Edelsky C., Altwerger B. and Flores B. (1991), “There simply is no uniform set of practices prescribed by whole language theory.” Therefore, in understanding the concept of Whole Language Approach, adopting and applying it, the teacher may face difficulty. This makes it difficult to describe what is actually going on in a whole language classroom. It is also difficult to see whether there is any consistency in the teaching process in different classrooms which enables the observer to recognize whether it is indeed a practice of Whole Language Approach or something else.

Generally, the Whole Language teaching consists of those activities a teacher, with a thorough understanding of the philosophy, would use. The teacher aims to provide a proper environment which will encourage children to develop their skills at their own developmentally appropriate pace. The teacher organizes language skills activities. According to Spruman, Cardyn V. (1992), by giving various exercises, the teacher tries to combine pronunciation, vocabulary and grammar into an organic whole. The practice emphasizes that the course content is meaningful, communicative and practical. According to Li, Z. C. (2007), teachers should let learners learn in a learning context where language can be actually used rather than asking them to learn fragmented language skills on their own. It means that the Whole Language Approach suggests that language is learned ‘from whole to part’. Bergeron, B. S. (1990), says that

learners are presented with whole and natural language. Therefore, teachers should open up learning opportunities for learners and enable them to use their language skills. Ferreiro, E. and Teberosky, A. (1982), say that children may even create their own wordings for their writing.

Lamb, H. and Best, D. (1990), discuss several whole language activities during which children develop reading, writing, listening, and speaking skills. By encouraging spontaneous conversations, teachers allow learners to reinforce existing knowledge while learning new language from others.

Moreover, the aim of teaching through Whole Language Approach is the comprehension of the whole passage. Therefore, printed material should be part of the whole teaching session. According to Yoo, S. Y. (1996), the teacher should often show the value of print to share meaning in discussion. The teacher instigates learners to learn and acts as a facilitator of the whole learning process. In this regard, Yoo, S. Y. (1996), says that the whole language teachers become facilitators of learning rather than instructors who just use control and authority as in traditional teaching.

WLA is Learner-centered Approach

Whole language is the learner-centered approach as it emphasizes learner-centered instruction, taking the learners as its core purpose, integration of reading and writing and natural language experiences as

opposed to direct instruction in isolated skills as many other methods and approaches used to do. Thus, Whole Language Approach places considerable emphasis on spontaneous interest and concerns of learners. It respects learners' individuality and fosters their creativity in the target language. Therefore, the learning activities are mostly done by the learners themselves, because this approach is not teaching how to learn the language, but rather how to be communicative in the target language. This makes the learning process a learner-centered activity. Therefore, the Whole Language Approach, in addition to its possession of a holistic paradigm, it is also learner-centered activity. It means that in Whole Language Approach, the learners have the right of choice. The teacher should not only be a knowledge-passer, but also a planner and encourager so as to arouse learners' interest. The teacher should take learners' needs, aims and interests into consideration and try to foster their motivation in the process of learning.

According to Goodman, K. S. and Goodman, Y. M. (1981), comprehension, from the Whole Language Approach view, then flows from the reader's previous knowledge and background information. By incorporating the prior knowledge of the learners and focusing on their strengths, learning through Whole Language Approach, becomes, according to Freeman, D. and Freeman, Y. (1988), centered around the learner.

Therefore, according to Whole Language

Approach language learning is not a passive activity or mechanical process in which learners just imitate language behavior presented by the teacher. It is rather a process in which they develop language skills by exchanging ideas and information with others about their own experiences and ideas, communicates with each other in the target language which they are learning and at the same time they discover and generalize language rules. It means that they learn by doing. In this regard, Edelsky C., Altwerger B. and Flores B. (1991), say that learners should learn by doing, not by practicing and drilling. It means that language should be learned through usage; similar to the way a child learns his own mother tongue. Thus, the Whole Language Approach is based on social interaction. Edelsky C., Altwerger B. and Flores B. (1991), describe how meaning is conveyed socially through language. They say, "The meanings for texts ... are not in the text or even in the language. Language can only mean what its community of users know ... the meanings users have attached to the experiences they have had. When the language community has new experiences ... the range of potential meanings for the language (users) is expanded." According to Edelsky C., Altwerger B. and Flores B. (1991), babies learn to use language by engaging in language and building on what they know. Their purpose is to convey meaning. They consider that this is also the purpose of Whole Language Approach in which meaning is given its community

weight and social value. Thus, the Whole Language Approach has its roots in the meaning-emphasis and whole-word model of teaching reading.

Merits of WLA

Whole language is unique. According to Kutz, E. and Roskelly, H. (1991), “The difference in approach makes a real difference in children’s attitudes about reading. Gloria Norton, a teacher in a whole-language program at a bilingual school... asked children from different elementary schools what reading is. Children who were learning to read in traditional school ways thought that reading was ‘answering questions,’ ‘working in workbooks,’ ‘sounding out words,’ figuring out what the teacher wants.’ But children from her school, who had been writing and reading their own stories, thought of reading as ‘living in a world that the author creates.’”

Researches show that Whole Language Approach is an effective and motivating approach for both children and adult learners of the target language. Krashen, S. D. (2002), provided in his study an evidence on the limits of phonics instruction and the efficacy of Whole Language Approach.

According to Ling, Pan (2012), the advantages of Whole Language Approach “overweigh its disadvantages and it is a theory that is worth popularizing. The advocates are beginning to accept some criticisms and

making some efforts to improve and enrich its principles. I think with continuous improvement, it will become more satisfactory.” Ling, Pan (2012), says that the advantages of Whole Language Approach lie in three aspects. “Firstly, with this theory, it becomes easier and more possible for the students to understand the whole text. Secondly, it blends the practices of listening, speaking, reading and writing into an organic unity, avoiding developing the reading ability only in the teaching of English reading. Thirdly, it adopts informal assessment so that the students can get a more objective score.”

Ping, Zhang (n.d.), says that the Whole Language Approach is refreshing and fulfilling. With the teacher’s guidance and feedback, learners become more actively involved in learning tasks. Moreover, many learners express their satisfaction in the realization that they read and enjoy great literary works. According to Ling, Pan (2012), firstly, there exist a lot of problems in our teaching of English reading, and they severely affect the improvement of our English teaching. Secondly, the ‘whole language’ theory brings new ideas and new methods to our foreign language teaching. We can use it to improve the teaching of English reading. Thirdly, the ‘whole language’ theory has both advantages and disadvantages, and its advantages outweigh its disadvantages, but it still needs further improvement.

Alhaddad, Abdelkareem Saleem (2014), stated that

higher thinking skills could be improved through using Whole Language Approach. It enhances cooperation among learners and decreases selfishness and thus creating a conducive environment for teaching literacy. Heald-Taylor, G. (1986), compiled a list of eight ways in which the Whole Language Approach can benefit ESL learners:

- “Youngsters can participate in all language activities regardless of their level of proficiency in English.
- Mixed ability groups can learn together.
- Learning strategies are child-centered, causing youngsters to continually experience and use language to think and to seek meaning.
- Development in oral language, reading, and writing are totally integrated and grow simultaneously.
- Rate of growth is completely individual.
- The student uses his/her developing English in the reading and writing process right from the start.
- Students learn to speak, read, and write by being engaged in the process.
- Whole language processes facilitate growth in both first and second languages.”

Demerits of WLA

Ling, Pan (2012), says that the disadvantages of Whole Language Approach lie in two aspects: “Firstly, the teaching of grammatical rules lack systematization. According to this theory, the

grammatical rules are taught only when they appear. So some grammar rules that seldom appear in the text will be easily ignored. Secondly, the word spelling and pronunciation rules are important links in the process of improving the reading ability, but the 'whole language' theory pays little attention to them."

Weir, R. (1990), is critical of the foundations and practice of the Whole Language Approach. She argues that it has led to an increase in illiteracy and the shifting of blame for poor achievement from the school to the home. She believes that advocates of this approach have a responsibility to provide evidence for naturally unfolding development to justify the use of indirect process-oriented education. Weir, R. considers that Frank Smith and Goodman, K. S. have dominated educational policies without an acceptable research base for their theories. Thus, many critics consider that Whole Language Approach is not an effective way of learning language. It violates the natural law that the learners follow in acquiring a language.

The Cognitive Approach or Cognitive-code Learning Theory

Historical Background

During the 1950s, the Audio-Lingual Method (ALM), which was based on behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics, had dominated the American classrooms of language teaching. However, the focus of ALM which was solely on memorizing the language items and performing drills through laboratories gave little opportunity for learners to make an actual and truly creative use of the target language and consequently ALM utterly failed to enhance the skill to communicate naturally in the target language. Moreover, some learners and teachers expressed their dissatisfaction with the absence of both implicit grammar explanation and individuality which allows for some variation in the learners' learning styles and speeds.

In the end of 1950s and early 1960s, the fields of psychology and linguistics faced a kind of revolution against prevalent assumptions of behaviorist psychology and structural linguistics which dominated the American classroom during 1950s and 1960s. Moreover, during the 1960s, researches in the field of psychology brought-in new knowledge about cognitive psychology that gave

further theorization about language teaching/learning process. Consequently, the behaviorist assumptions, which asserted the importance of stimulus-response conditioning, were questioned by cognitive psychologists. They considered that those assumptions could not account for all the complexities which surround the process of human learning.

Thus, the new studies and researches on learning as a cognitive process rejected the old behaviorist assumptions which are based on products; verbal habits. Understanding and thinking mechanisms had not been considered because of their risk of being subjective and ambiguous data; not objectively observable, measured and treated as a scientific discipline usually demands.

These developments in the fields of psychology and linguistics crept into foreign language teaching/learning classrooms. Consequently, there was a revolt also against the Audiovisual and Audiolingual Method which laid too much emphasis on peripheral psychological mechanisms. There was a call for a broader perspective both in the linguistic and psychological fields.

An assumption emerged claiming that the Cognitive Theory is capable of providing a more complete perspective on how humans learn. The emphasis on human cognition inspired by Chomsky's revolution led to a new general approach to language teaching/learning termed as Cognitive-code Approach (CcA). Noam, Chomsky advocated that language is not

learnt through habit-formation, but rule-formation in which cognition plays a crucial role. In other words, language learning is not just a mechanical process of imitation or habit-formation as Structuralism or Behaviorists thought and claimed. Rather, it is a mental process involving hypothesis forming and testing. Its proposal on linguistic grounds came through Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG).

TGG and Cognitive-code Approach

Cognitive-code Approach has been very much influenced by Chomsky's theory of TGG. Noam, Chomsky was a representative figure of Cognitive-code Approach which started taking shape in the wake of Chomsky's attack on Behaviorism and Structuralism. Noam, Chomsky questioned B. F. Skinner's assumption which claimed that language use is purely a conditioned behavior. He, in answer to Skinner's assumptions, published a critical review of B. F. Skinner's book *Verbal Behavior*, presented new views about language learning and rejected the behaviorist and structuralist point of views. He criticized the background of the Behaviorist Approach and built up a new approach called the Cognitive-code Approach, which gave birth to Cognitive Code-Learning Theory within the influences of Cognitive Psychology. Chomsky, N. advocated that Cognitive Approach views language not as a set of habits acquired through 'stimulus responses', but as a creative activity

utilizing mental processes in a conscious and analytical manner. The learner makes a conscious study of language rules as it is central to the learning of a language. Chomsky, N. considers that language learning is an active mental process rather than a process of just habit formation or learn-by-doing activity. Chomsky, N. considers that the learner is not only a thinking being, but also an active processor in information processing. This shows that there are strong similarities between Mentalism and Cognitive-code Learning Theory. Both emphasized the importance of thinking, information processing, comprehension, rule-governing and memory in the process of language learning. Chomsky, N. asserted that humans are constantly producing and understanding new utterances. Therefore, the constant production and understanding of new utterances is a process that cannot be explained by just confining it to behavioristic assumptions and claims. In fact, the learner forms hypotheses about the language subjected to learning, tests those hypotheses and turns them into rules which are capable of creative production in the target language by utilizing the incoming input in new situations creatively and communicatively. The Cognitive-code Approach considers this process as innate and universal. It exists in all children (and possibly, learners), because of two reasons: Firstly, human beings or human children are endowed with a Language Acquisition Device (LAD); an innate predisposition to induce rules of target language

being learnt from the input they are exposed to. In this regard, Chomsky, N. (2004a), argued that humans come into the world with a wired device; an innate language learning ability, ‘a faculte de language’ that takes the form of which he called Language Acquisition Device (LAD), that proceeds by hypothesizing about language, where Universal Grammar (UG) operates. Secondly, learners make similar developmental errors; all children (and possibly, learners) make the same developmental errors, as in the overgeneralization ‘drinked’, which shows that the learner is learning the rules of the language even if they are, incorrectly, applying them for some time. Thus, language learning is a universal process. There is a universal grammar in all the languages in the world. Such concepts made deep implications on the whole process of language learning. In fact, the development of TGG and Cognitive Psychology led to the emergence of a ‘rationalist’ or cognitive theory in which transformational generative concepts became associated with the cognitive view of language learning and consequently Cognitive Approach or Cognitive-code learning came into existence.

Theoretical Background

The term ‘cognitive’ refers to the process of thinking, goal-setting, planning for future activities, solving problems, learning, storing information and remembering. As its name implies, the Cognitive-code

Approach deals with mental processes like memory and problem solving. In fact, the first theoretical axis of the Cognitive theory came from the field of psychology. By emphasizing mental processes, Cognitive-code language teaching places itself in opposition to behaviorism, which largely ignores mental processes. In other words, the mentalist assumptions stand in a sharp contrast to the behavioral assumptions which wrongly considered learning as just a process of memorization, repetition and association in which the learner is regarded as just an empty vessel to be filled up by experiences arising from memorization, repetition and association. Mentalism took the individual and his attempt to create a language and be innovative in it into account. It rejected the notion which claims that the learner is just an empty organism to be filled up by repletion and rewarded for correct responses. Mentalism considered the individual as a creative and innovative participant in the learning process. In this regard, mentalism valued the importance of prior knowledge in the process of learning, distinguished the dichotomy of competence/ performance and studied universal aspects which are common for all learners and all languages. Chomsky, N. (1965), distinguished between competence and performance; origin of the notion of communicative competence and the communicative teaching approaches. Competence is the knowledge of an idealized speaker whereas performance is the actual implementation of that knowledge.

However, it is important to remember that there is a close link between Cognitive-code Approach and Behaviorist Approach. In other words, it can't be denied that the development of the Cognitive-code Approach is closely linked with the behaviorist approach. For example, Edwin Tolman, whose work on 'cognitive maps' in rats made him a cognitive pioneer, called himself a behaviorist. Similarly, the work of David, Krech (aka Ivan Krechevsky) on hypotheses in maze learning was based on behaviorist techniques of observation and measurement. However, the Cognitive-code Approach has become more popular than behaviorism. It became one of the dominant approaches which derive from studies of contemporary psychology.

The second theoretical axis of the Cognitive theory came from the field of Linguistics; the development of the Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) and the Universal Grammar (UG). The TGG considers that each language has a shallow and a deep structure; the latter being the universal aspect represented by the shallow structure in each individual language. Deep structures are represented by the shallow structures in individual languages. In opposition to the previous Structuralist assumptions in which a description of particular language was made, language for the UG consisted of a set of universal features, rules and transformations forming the linguistic system or the grammar in every language. In this regard, the Universal Grammar was an attempt to

discover what it is that all children, regardless of the language they hear around them, bring to the process of language acquisition. Therefore, the Cognitive Theory emphasized on studying a language as a system of rules and rule-governed behavior and knowledge. Cognitive-code Approach accepts the Universal Grammar of Chomsky which underlies all grammars. Thus, it was considered to be the updated version of the traditional Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) and believes in the importance of the deep structure of the language in the process of acquiring the target language, but without making a propaganda for the grammar as the GTM used to do.

Thus, with Chomskyan revolution, the attention of foreign language teacher turned to 'deep structure' of language. More cognitive learning studies were made in order to discover universal features by investigating into the structures such as questions, negations, word order, relative clauses and discontinuity of embedded clauses. The TGG view of language learning has close relation with the principles of cognitive psychology. Both emphasize on the roles of the learners themselves and on the ways in which learners' minds work to process information. This makes TGG and Cognitive Psychology different from behaviorism which emphasizes on the role of external conditioning agents whereas Cognitive Psychology rejected the assumptions of the so-called stimulus-response approach of the behaviorists in

language learning. The criticisms against the inductive (behaviourist) learning theory, coming from Cognitive Psychologists, were as follows: (1) it does not account for the underlying similarities of all languages, (2) it would take too long for the student to learn a language inductively, and (3) inductive data are too distorted and partial for proper application.

Cognitive Psychology opposed also the 'empiricist' trends which were pedagogically Audiolingualist, psychologically Behaviorist and linguistically Structuralist. It considers that the learner perceives new relationships among the parts of problems. It views learning as a process of recognition rather than just a process of repetition and memory. Thus, Cognitive Psychology became active in studying the process of the human mind and how human mental processes work and how this knowledge can be utilized to improve upon existing methodologies of language learning and make the target language learner possess both optimum competence and good performance in the language he learns.

Thus, it can be said that the Cognitive Theory is not an explicit teaching method, but it is a reaction against Structuralist and Behaviorist principles in the field of learning in general and language learning in particular. The principles of the Cognitive Theory sprang from the psychological and the linguistic fields and they questioned the correctness of the assumptions of the

Structuralism and Audiolingualism pertaining to language learning.

Cognitive-code learning was advocated by cognitive psychologists and applied linguists such as Carroll, J. B. and Chastain, K. as well. Carroll, J. B. was an American psychologist famous for his contributions to psychology and educational linguistics. While elaborating on the techniques of language learning, Carroll, J. B. (1966b), stated that “a process of acquiring conscious control of the phonological, grammatical, and lexical patterns of the target language largely through study and analysis of these patterns will facilitate the accumulation of the body of knowledge.” Carroll, J. B. and Chastain, K. proposed the Cognitive-code Approach to the study of a second language as an alternative to the Audio-Lingual Method which was dominant at that time. Carroll, J. B. and Chastain, K. advocated the conscious study of language rules as central to the learning of a foreign language. Consequently, Cognitive-code Language Teaching is accepted as a merger of Chomsky’s TGG and Carroll’s Psychology. It can be said that Cognitive-code Language Teaching is based on Gestalt psychology as well as TGG. Cognitive psychology draws much from the Gestaltists who state that learning should be holistic.

The Cognitive Approach or Cognitive-code Learning refers to a theory of language teaching/learning which came out as a result of the ferment of the mixture

of Cognitivist Psychology, Structural Applied Linguistic and Chomsky's theories in the 1960s which influenced the theory of language learning. Cognitive-code Language Teaching started replacing Behaviorism in the late 1960s. Consequently, Cognitive-code Approach created a major shift in language teaching/learning and became popular in the 1960s and 1970s. By 1970, the Behavioristic assumptions of the Audio-Lingual Method, which stress habit formation, had been largely replaced by Cognitive-code Approach to language learning and cognitive principles began to play a significant role in foreign language classrooms and continued to do so for some time. Thus, it can be said that Cognitive-code Approach was a reaction against the weaknesses of the Audiolingual method, Structuralism and Behaviorism. Cognitive-code Approach assumed that creativity and innovativeness are involved in the process of language learning. According to Skehan, P. (1998a), "the Cognitive Code approach enables maximum creativity in what is said. There is no constraint on the production of new combinations of meaning, since it is assumed that a rule-based system is operating 'anew' for the production of each utterance and so constructions can be accomplished in total freedom."

Aims, Concepts and Assumptions of CcA

When Structuralism and Behaviorism failed to deliver, effectively, the task of teaching/learning the

second/foreign language, there was a need for a new method that deals with foreign language learning. Researchers were thinking to model the process of second/foreign language learning on the basis of mother tongue acquisition. It can be said that Cognitive Theory formed a set of new concepts of language learning such as the notions of universality, creativity and innateness in language learning. This created a major shift in the approach to language learning. It was also called the Cognitive Academic Language Learning Approach. The term 'cognitive-code' refers to any conscious attempt to organize a language teaching/learning material around a grammatical syllabus so as to make way for a meaningful practice and practical use of the target language in communicative context. In fact, one of the most important precepts of Cognitive-code Approach is the meaningful practice of the target language. In other words, an important cognitive concept that influenced the Cognitive-code Approach is the distinction between meaningful learning and rote learning. Learning in general takes place through cognitive memory structures which is located in the human brain. They receive, perceive, process, store for short or long-term, recall and retrieve information. They undertake the activity of internal processing of the information which they receive. However, learning will not take place unless the matter to be learnt is meaningful to the learner. According to Ausubel D. P., Novak J. D. and Hanesian H.

(1978), meaningful learning is that which is relatable to concepts that are already established in learners' cognitive structure. It permits the formation of mental links between new ideas and the existing ideas. Rote learning, consists of relatively isolated concepts that are learned verbatim and are not integrated into the cognitive structure. Ausubel D. P., Novak J. D. and Hanesian H. (1978), cite researches and state that meaningful learning takes place more rapidly than rote learning and it is retained longer and it is more easily transferable to new contexts and situations. This might be very clear from the fact that the vocabulary which are learned in situational context are learned more easily and retained for longer time than the isolated words which are learned through rote memorization. Therefore, Presentation, Practice and Production (PPP) are important factors to establish the meaning, understand the grammar of the target language and create a proper meaning along with acquiring suitable vocabulary. Generally, lessons should focus on learning grammatical structures, but the Cognitive-code Approach emphasizes on the importance of meaningful practice. It believes that language practice must be meaningful so that the learner will be able to understand the rules and structures involved in practice in relation to the goal of gaining conscious control over the grammatical, lexical and auditory patterns of the target language and utilize them in communicative situations. Therefore, the structures are presented inductively, i.e. the rules came

after exposure to examples representing them.

Thus, the central aim of Cognitive-code language learning is to provide the learners of the target language with sufficient opportunities to get involved in meaningful practice in the process of target language learning. Smith, F. (1975), developed this cognitive conceptualization of the target language learning process with the concept of ‘manufacturing meaningfulness.’ He has argued that such meaningfulness is a strong factor in the success of the learner in the process of the target language learning by which the learner can transform any language situation of context into a successful learning process and a meaningful learning outcome. Hence, the Cognitive-code Approach concept regarding the process of learning stood in a sharp contrast to that of the Behaviorist Approach. According to Brown, H. D. (1987), the Behaviorist Approach claims that the target language learning process depends on rote learning whereas the Cognitive-code Approach claims that it depends on ‘meaningful’ learning. According to Bose, K. (1999), “The emphasis is on rule learning, meaningful practice and creativity.”

The Cognitive-code Approach stresses on the control of the language in all its manifestations as a coherent and meaningful system. It considers language as a kind of consciously acquired ‘competence’ which the learner can put to use in real life situations and contexts. Bose, K. (1999), says, “This approach lays emphasis on

the conscious acquisition of language by intense drill, and habit formation is less probable.” Therefore, the practice of meaningful material is regarded as being of a great importance towards developing automatic control of the contents of learning. According to Bose, K. (1999), the Cognitive-code Approach seeks to develop intellectual understanding in the learner of the language as a system.

Moreover, Cognitive-code Learning Theory believes that there is a close relationship between language and culture. It assumes that the target language and its culture are supposed to be at the heart of language teaching/learning efforts. Thus, understanding the nature of the relationship between language and its culture is central to the process of learning another language because culture plays a central role in the way how meanings in their contexts are interpreted in social interaction and communicational activity. Therefore, it is the language in its cultural context that creates meaning and facilitates communication. In this process, creation and interpretation of meaning are done within a cultural framework in the form of ways of life, social values, beliefs, proxemics, kinesics, etc. In other words, in developing language capabilities in target language and its culture in the learners, there is a crucial need to engage learners with the ways in which cultural content and context affect foreign language learning. Thus, Cognitive-code Approach believes that learners should be given the chance to realize the concepts of the cultural

views, practices and their practical utility in enabling them to have a meaningful understanding of the target language because meaningful learning is more than just learning the code of linguistic structures and rules. It involves also social practices of interpreting the target culture and at the same time making meanings in communicative contexts.

Thus, the Cognitive-code Approach emphasized that language learning involved active mental processes of learning. It considered that language learning is the product of rule-formation, hypothesis testing and creative processes in which the learner gets engaged in hypothesis construction rather than just memorization, repetition, association, imitation or habit-formation as behaviorism or structuralism used to claim. It believes that language is a product of rule-formation and a hypothesis testing of what has been learnt. The Cognitive-code Approach considers that language is a creative process and innovative activity, not just a matter of imitation or habit-formation. It believes that the process of learning would be easier if the target language is treated as a structure or system and that the task of the learner in the whole process of learning is not only to understand how the structure in the system is related to the rest of the whole system, but also how the whole system is related to each other in a creative and innovative manner and that creativity and innovativeness usually arise from the mental process of the learners which opts for hypothesis

forming and testing. Thus, Cognitive-code Approach believes that language learning is not at all just a mechanical process as behaviorists assumed. It is, rather, a mental process involving hypothesis forming and testing. The Cognitive Approach assumes that children acquire a language by making hypotheses about the rules of the grammar of the languages with which they are surrounded. Thus, to make the learner utter grammatically acceptable sentences in the target language, the Cognitive-code Approach depends on the extent of the learner's understanding of the syntactic rules of the target language and their transformations. It means that Cognitive Approach aimed at developing a kind of conceptualization of language knowledge within the learners to enable them to be creative in the target language they are learning.

The holistic teaching/learning of the target language on which Cognitive-code Approach relies on studying the language itself and considers it as a complex system. Its aim is to have a conscious control over its auditory patterns; segmental and supra-segmental phonemes, lexical, vocabulary stock and grammatical patterns. It believed that phonemes should be learned before words, words before phrases, clauses before sentences, and simple sentences before compound, complex and compound-complex sentences. It assumes that such a process will help learners to expect the outcome or anticipate what may happen next. Thus, the

whole concepts emphasize on conscious and explicit learning of the grammatical rules and consider them as codes of that language.

Shiffrin, R. M. and Schneider, W. (1977), assert that human beings possess two distinct ways of processing information they receive. The first one is the Automatic processing which undertakes the task of Automatic activation of certain 'nodes' in human memory whenever he receives certain inputs. This Automatic activation of certain 'nodes' in human memory makes the person's cognitive resources free to focus on other tasks. On the other hand, the second one is controlled processing in which the memory nodes are activated temporarily only. This requires the individual's conscious attention. Shiffrin, R. M. and Schneider, W. claim that it is only through the repeated use of controlled processes that a skill is crystallized and becomes automatic. McLaughlin, B. (1987), cites evidence that efficient users of a language use automatic processes to recognize words, process sentences and comprehend reading passages whereas beginner users of a language usually use controlled processes that demand more of the learners' time, attention and effort.

Features of Cognitive-code Learning

- The Cognitive-code Approach provides a more cognitive background to language learning. In fact, it puts the task of language analysis before the task of

language use and the instruction by the teacher ahead of the learner practice of language forms.

- The Cognitive-code Approach teaches the system of the target language through a process of cognitive exercises in order to facilitate the process of understanding of the meaning that could be used in all communicative situations and contexts.
- The Cognitive-code Approach treats learners' errors differently by looking at errors positively. Thus, the learners are not made to feel guilty for committing errors. Rather, learners are asked to use more and more language in order to have internal feedback about their performance, realize their errors by themselves, transcend the errors and improve their learning achievement. Thus, Cognitive-code Approach tolerates learners' errors and considers errors as part of learning process itself. The teacher may even find out many useful conclusions from the learner's errors such as where the learner stands and, thus, he/she can devise a strategy to help the learner over the learning difficulties. Moreover, the teacher allows learners to correct themselves instead of correcting them. Through these techniques, learners can transfer their skills smoothly and reach a satisfactory level of learning the target language.
- The Cognitive-code Approach does not object to the conscious teaching of grammar or language rules. In fact, it attaches more importance to the learner's

understanding of the structure of the target language than to the facility in using that structure itself. Moreover, the emphasis on explanations of the grammatical functions is a major feature of the Cognitive-code learning as it seeks learners' intellectual understanding of the language as a system. It means that in the Audio-Lingual Method, teachers were ordered not to tell learners about the language whereas in the Cognitive-code Approach, they were encouraged to tell learners about the language.

- The Cognitive-code Approach to language learning helps to make teaching of the language and teachers of the target language more creative and flexible.
- The Cognitive-code Approach emphasized on rule learning, meaningful practice and creativity in the target language instead of just reinforcement of the language items, habit-formation in the target language and over-learning of the language items as it was done in the previous methods. This is achieved when the learner is made to perceive the rules of the target language by himself/herself and get involved in practicing the language correctly.
- In the Cognitive-code Approach, the learner is at center-stage and he/she is the object of teaching whereas the teacher, who is an educator/instructor, becomes just a facilitator of the process of learning the language. Hence, the teacher carries the task of adapting the newly

learned structures of the target language to the needs of learners.

Teacher's/Learner's Role in CcA

In Cognitive-code Approach, learning is more important than teaching. Therefore, unlike the previous methods in which teachers found explicit guidelines, procedures and techniques of teaching, the CcA did not produce a method with a set of explicit step-by-step classroom procedures and techniques nor did it attain the prominence of, e.g., Audiolingualism in having a clear classroom techniques, procedures and implementation. However, CcA is used to teach languages in cases where both the mother tongue of the learners and target languages are genetically related to each other.

This approach tries to exploit the cognateness in terms of phonology, morphology, syntax and lexicon of both the mother tongue and the target language. Thus, the application of cognitive theory implies a responsibility to teach, both, content and process. Carroll, J. B., related acquisition of a language with the deliberate study and analysis of the patterns in that language. As it has been considered that learning a foreign language requires explicit teaching and learning the language as a complex and rule-governed system, the Cognitive-code Approach represents a sharp contrast to the Audiolingual Method which relies on pattern drills as a means of teaching

syntax, with explicit explanation of grammatical rules.

In Cognitive-code Approach rules of the target language are graded from the known to the unknown. Moreover, vocabulary items with the identical shape and meaning in, both, the source and the target languages are given priority. Moreover, Cognitive-code Approach affirms the utility of reading and writing in association with listening and speaking. Thus, all the four language skills, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing in the target language are developed together. Initially, skill learning may be deliberate and formidable task, but it becomes automatic with the active use.

Cognitive-code Approach teaches the grammar of the target language. The implications of this theory, according to Bose, K., are that this approach has rediscovered valuable features in the GTM as Cognitive-code Approach doesn't object to the conscious teaching of the grammatical rules. Moreover, as Cognitive theory acknowledges the role of mistakes; therefore, learners need to understand the rules of the language before getting exposed to drilling in the target language. Therefore, learners must be aware of the rules of the target language and get encouraged to create correct structures in applying them in communicative situations and contexts. In the words of Carroll, J. B. (1966b), as it is believed that the target learner has a proper degree of cognitive control over the structures of the target language, learning will develop automatically with use of

the target language in meaningful situations and contexts.

According to the Cognitive-code Approach new language is like a game. It is best learnt through demonstration and practice of the action in situation. Thus, practice and repetition are important as without practice and repetition no much learning can, actually, be achieved. In fact, with some repetition, comparison and contrasts, many learners will record a tangible and steadily progress in learning. Therefore, the teacher has to devise drills and activities that improve the learning achievement of the learners. Drills and activities are employed, mainly, to train learners to talk and master the basic structural patterns of the target language. Thus, providing meaningful drills and exploiting, comparatively and contrastively, various relationships in these drills are essential in the process of achieving effective learning of the target language. For example, the teacher uses a sound-color chart. It is an excellent teaching aid which allows the learners to work on their own and learn the language item presented before them. The learners learn to associate sounds with colors. When the turn comes to the learner, the teacher remains silent and waits for learners to answer and thus the learners produce language through the rule they have been taught. However, before practicing and using them, the application of rules in meaningful contexts is very important. In this regard, learners should find out for themselves what is correct and what should be avoided. It

means that, in Cognitive-code Approach, the conscious study of language rules is central to the learning of the target language. The teacher makes the learners recognize the rules without explicit explanation; by making sure that the learners have actually inferred the rules correctly. The teacher's task is to make the learners understand the rules of the target language and their complexity. In fact, learners learn best under such teacher-monitored conditions. Therefore, classroom activities should encourage learners to work out the grammar rules for themselves through inductive reasoning. It means that in Cognitive theory, the teaching of grammar must be prescriptive, implicit and inductive. Moreover, Cognitively-minded language teachers should give learners time to check on their understanding of the rules of the target language. Then, the teacher must encourage the learners to create new correct applications of the learnt structures. Thus, in Cognitive-code Approach, the foreign language learner is helped by getting a clear understanding of a grammatical series of rules of the target language.

In fact, the whole learning process in Cognitive-code Approach is seen as rule-formation and a cognitive skill that makes the learners exert in thinking because the focus is more on the learner than on the teacher. Therefore, CcA rules out mere blind imitation and memorization of the target language in general and the grammatical rule in particular. The teacher gives freedom

to his learners. In fact, one of the important techniques of the Cognitive Approach is that it promotes learner autonomy and initiativeness because the more the teacher does things for the learners, the less they will learn. The teacher may just give learners clues, help them and step in only when it is necessary. Thus, CcA minimizes teacher's interference in the process of learning and encourages learners to take over the task of learning by themselves and work on their own pace. It means that the Cognitive-code Approach considers that language is for expressing one's ideas and feelings and therefore the learner should be encouraged to talk with each other and with the teacher as well, indulge in a lot of co-operation among themselves, learn together and help their classmates when they go wrong. It means that they resort to peer correction to exchange mutual benefits.

In the process of teaching, the teacher observes the whole process of learning, uses feedback from the learners' performance so as to design teaching strategy and improve upon the teaching material. At the end of the class, the learners give their comments and further feedback on the lesson they have been taught and experienced. The teacher analyses the comments and feedback, uses them for the future teaching sessions, designing new material, improving over the techniques and procedures of teaching and evaluating as well as recording the needs of the learners in various skills. Moreover, the teacher pays attention to assimilation of

what has already been learnt or partly learnt and reflects upon how much the learners have mastered so that he/she can take care of what has not been learnt properly and give it more attention in future teaching/learning sessions.

In developing a professional quality in language teaching, it is essential for the teachers to consider the target language as a code and a social practice which must be balanced and given justice in the whole curriculum. The teacher detects and discovers what kinds of already acquired knowledge and experiences learners usually bring to the new learning situation and context. Because Cognitive-code Approach believes that learners learn better if they are taught from the known to the unknown. It is assumed that learners are smart to use the acquired knowledge of the mother tongue to process the target language. Nevertheless, there is no use of translation in the classroom. The learners must understand meaning of the language item cognitively as Cognitive-code Approach assumes that the language learner interprets target language input according to some preexistent 'theory' of language.

It is clear that the Cognitive-code Approach views about language learning differ from those of the Behaviorist Approach. The Cognitive-code Approach stresses the importance of internal mental functions. It claims the existence of a reflective language learning process that involves the cognition in the process of absorbing the meaning and utilize the same in recreating

new meaning whereas the Behaviorist Approach stresses the importance of a mechanistic absorption of the language through principles of behavior stimuli and modification through imitation and repetition. Miller, W. R. and Ervin, S. (1964), as cited by Spolsky, B. (1966), say that according to Cognitive Approach, second language learning is a basic cognitive process and activity that involves the learner's conscious understanding of the target language structure. According to CcA, language learning is not the same as mere modifying the behavior of the learner, as the behaviorist school of thought had suggested. It is, rather, a competent thinking process that makes learning possible and achievable. Therefore, this approach does not believe in giving homework to the learners as it assumes that sound sleeping can induce effective and efficient incubation of what has been already learnt, pave the way for its rooting in the mind of the learner and arrange for the good learning of the next item taught.

Advantages of CcA

The Cognitive-code Approach has some advantages over other teaching approaches and methods. They may be enumerated as follows:

1. The Cognitive-code Approach seems to have answered many theoretical and practical problems which have not been answered by the Behaviorist and the Structuralist Approaches. It represents a realistic road-

map of language teaching/learning much better than that of the Behaviorism and the Structuralism Approaches.

2. The Cognitive-code Approach considered that language is acquired and thus it rejected the habit-formation, repetition and imitation of the Behaviorist theory.
3. As learners are thinking-beings, learning requires cognitive processing and mental effort.
4. The Cognitive-code Approach makes the teachers free from rigidity of GTM, Audiolingualism and Structural-Situational Methods.
5. The Cognitive-code Approach puts the learner at the center of the learning process and activity where the teacher is just an observer of the learning process.
6. The Cognitive-code Approach, practically, focuses on the individual learner, his learning process and the progress of learning.
7. The Cognitive-code Approach revived the importance of involving the grammar of the target language in the process of learning it.
8. The Cognitive-code Approach emphasizes on the learning of the rules of the target language through meaningful practices and creative handling of the target language. It guides the learner to discover the rules of the target language or what can be called the rule-governed nature of target language.
9. By means of employing 'Presentation, Practice and

Production methodology (PPP)' in Cognitive-code Approach, the learners gain a clear understanding of the grammatical rule before they practice it in meaningful situations and contexts.

10. The Cognitive-code Approach claims that the process of language education must activate multiple drilling and experiences which lead learners through direct involvement so as to discover the language and foster the learning process.
11. In the Cognitive-code Approach, learners are thought to develop strategies to find out meaning of reading materials which they are reading.
12. The Cognitive-code Approach changed the attitude of teaching circles towards the errors of the learners. Errors were accepted and considered as natural things in the process of learning the target language. Such a changed-attitude led to the appearance of error analysis and the trend that calls for contextualized grammar instruction that teaches grammar situationally and contextually.
13. In the Cognitive-code Approach, the teacher makes frequent evaluations of the learning achievement of the learners and the extent of their retention or incubation of what they have learned as the Cognitive-code Approach believes that new skills and experiences build upon previously acquired knowledge. It means that in the Cognitive-code Approach, the learner must master the required basic language level before moving

on to the next level of cognitive development.

14. Cognitive-code Approach has had a significant effect on English for Specific Purpose courses all over the world.

Disadvantages of CcA

At its core, the Cognitive-code learning represents a hypothetical rather than a completely established theoretical or pedagogical approach. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), the Cognitive-code Approach is not a method in the sense of a “specific instructional design or system.” Rivers, W. M. (1986), affirms that the Cognitive-code Approach “was much discussed but ill-defined and consequently never gained the status of what one might call a method.” Therefore, by the mid of 1970s, the Cognitive-code Approach disappeared among other competing theories and approaches of language learning, particularly, the Communicative Language Teaching. The disadvantages of the Cognitive-Code Approach can be enumerated as follows:

1. The Cognitive-code Approach is a hypothetical assumption rather than a true and complete theoretical or pedagogical approach because it did not lead to the development of any clear teaching method in relation to classroom techniques, practices, procedures and activities. It means that Cognitive-code Approach has no clear classroom techniques, procedure and

implementation. In other words, it has no explicit step-by-step methodology. In fact, it failed to give a tangible experimental proof of its claims about the work of human-thinking in the process of language learning. It can be said that it was just a 'theoretical proposal', therefore, it was debated and criticized. It was just considered as a modernized version of the traditional GTM. It means that not everyone agreed with the Chomsky's theory of Second Language Acquisition from which the Cognitive-code Approach extracted its assumptions.

2. In the Cognitive-code Approach, human information processing is resembled to the way computers process information, however, such an assumption oversimplifies the complicated and sophisticated functioning of human intellect which produced the computers themselves.
3. The stress of the Cognitive-code Approach on rules was considered just like the behaviorist rote drilling and repetition.
4. There is confusion for practitioners, with Nunan D. (2003), ascribing inductive reasoning to it, while Brown (2001), notes that proponents of the Cognitive-code learning methodology injected more deductive rule learning into language classes.
5. In the Cognitive-code Approach, there is little employment of examples from authentic teaching material.

6. According to Carroll, J. B. (1966b), “the theory attaches more importance to the learner understands of the structure of the foreign language than to the facility in using that structure.”
7. The Cognitive-code Approach emphasis on the development of a second/foreign language as a combination of skills did not, actually, take place.
8. Though the Cognitive-code Approach gives due importance to the past knowledge of the learners, it ignores the fact that the past experiences of the learner do not always help all learners in the process of learning the target language.
9. In the Cognitive-code Approach, there is too much emphasis on social and cultural context with an apparent relegation of the variables in individual personalities and potentialities of people and how those different personalities and potentialities are formed or function and their effect on learning and its achievement.
10. It can be said that the Cognitive-code Approach is a depersonalized theory as it does not take into consideration feelings, unconscious actions and reactions of the human being in the process of learning.
11. The Cognitive-code Approach neglects the effect of individuals’ biology (DNA), learning differences in relation to the hormonal processes and the extent of brain development.
12. The Cognitive-code Approach neglects the fact that

biology, genetics, culture and past experiences have not been sufficiently tested as factors in mental processing and language learning.

13. The Cognitive-code Approach is extremely time consuming for the teacher, particularly, in foreign language context where the teachers themselves may not be sufficiently qualified and giving attention to individual learner may not be possible, due to overcrowded classes, though it is very much necessary so as to give more attention to slow learners and achieve successful learning of the target language.
14. The Cognitive-code Approach falls short in the explanation of relationship between two main concepts; namely, observational learning and self-efficacy. Learners may learn by means of observation, but learning achievement is higher with learners who can make proper use of self-efficacy.
15. Cognitive-code Approach seems to have made all its claims just to overcome the shortfalls of the Audiolingual Approach and to criticize the Structural and Behavioral assumptions.
16. The Cognitive-code Approach did not have much appeal to language teachers whose training does not entail a familiarity with grammar rules and syntax of the target language.
17. Cognitive-code Approach failed to gain wide support or have a wide spreading in all language teaching contexts.

The Silent Way Method

Background

The Silent Way Method (SWM) was designed and introduced in the 1960s by Gattegno, Caleb; a European educator and a teacher of mathematics, in order to solve the problems in the process of learning the language. It received more recognition in 1970s, mainly, from 1972 to 1976.

Although the Silent Way Method comes under the Cognitive Approach, it did not evolve directly from the Cognitive-code Approach itself, however, the principles of the Cognitive-code Approach seem to be constituent with it. Thus, Silent Way Method derived its teaching thought from such new trends in the thoughts of language teaching which were emerging at that time.

Like other teaching methods which emerged in the wake of Chomskyan theories, the Silent Way Method also viewed language learning to be a natural process. Gattegno, Caleb made use of his understanding of the mother tongue acquisition processes as a basis for deriving principles for teaching foreign languages to adults' learners. According to Scott, R. and Page, M. (1982), Gattegno, Caleb recommended that the learner needs to "return to the state of mind that characterizes a baby's learning surrender." Thus, the idea of the Silent

Way Method centers on teaching all the four skills in a natural process and context.

It can be said that the Silent Way Method is one of the latest methods of language teaching. It is categorized under humanistic approaches in which two methods are generally considered to reflect the philosophy of the humanistic approach in the fullest sense of the term. They are as follows:

- The Silent Way.
- Community Language Learning.

Two other methods, which consciously incorporate some of the tenets of the humanistic approach, are:

- Suggestopedia.
- Total Physical Response.

Assumptions of the SWM

One of the basic tenets of the Silent Way Method is the subordination of teaching to learning. In other words, Gattegno, Caleb proposed his method which was based on the tenet, 'teaching must be subordinate to learning.' He believes that the teachers should concentrate more on how the learners learn and not on how they should teach. According to Gattegno, Caleb (1976), in the Silent Way Method the learner is expected to become "independent, autonomous and responsible." Thus, the Silent Way Method gave space for learners' independence in the process of learning.

The Silent Way Method provides the conditions

necessary for learning without deciding what the learning processes themselves should be. According to the Silent Way Method, it is the learner who decides what kind of a role is most suitable to a given context. In order to be a productive member of the learning group, the learner has to play different roles at various times. The learner may be an independent individual, a group member, a teacher, a learner, a support group system, a problem solver and a self-evaluator. True independent learners are those who depend on their own available resources and past experiences, realize that they can employ the acquired knowledge of their own mother tongue, make use of the first few words they have already acquired to discover something new in the target language they are learning and explore further words of the target language by using that knowledge and so on. Thus, the Silent Way Method gave a scope for experimental learning that depends on, and employs as well, the learner's previous experience. Gattegno, Caleb (1972), views language itself "as a substitute for experience, so experience is what gives meaning to language." He views learning as problem solving process and creative, innovative and discovering activity. Therefore, he wants from the teacher to remain silent and urge the learners to do all the talking, discussion and exploration in the target language they are learning. Like the Cognitive-code Approach, the Silent Way Method also focuses on the learner. Bruner, J. (1966a), believes that in the Silent Way Method, learner is a

principal actor rather than just a bench-bound listener to somebody who teaches. Bruner, J. (1966a), opines, “the teacher and the student are in more cooperative position. The student is not a bench-bound listener, but is taking part in the formulation and at times may play the principal role in it.” Bruner, J. (1966a), discusses the benefits derived from discovery learning under four headings:

- The tangible increase in the intellectual potency.
- The major shift from extrinsic to intrinsic rewards.
- The learning of heuristics by the process of discovering.
- The aid to conserving memory.

The Silent Way Method is based on the assumption that the teacher should remain silent as much as possible or at least minimize the verbal input and at the same time the teacher shall extract verbal output from the learners, thus, the learner should be encouraged to speak the target language as much as possible. The learner’s struggle to form an appropriate and meaningful utterance in the target language makes him understand the language, as Selman, M. (1977), puts it, “through his own perceptual and analytical powers.” Thus, the assumptions of the method present an element of novelty that makes it different from other methods.

In the Silent Way Method, the learning mechanism of imitation, drilling and repetition is not given much importance as the Behavioral psychology and ALM used to do. In fact, the teacher should avoid repetition as repetition in the words of Gattegno, Caleb (1976),

“consumes time and encourages the scattered mind to remain scattered.” Thus, the benefit of avoiding repetition as Gattegno, Caleb (1972), puts it: “the teacher’s strict avoidance of repetition forces alertness and concentration on the part of the learners.” Thus, in the Silent Way Method, imitation, drilling and repetition are avoided.

In fact, the whole matter, in the Silent Way Method, revolves around memory, retention attention, alertness and concentration. The deliberate silence of the teacher is assumed to be an aid to raise the level of learner’s attention, alertness, concentration and mental organization and all these sharpen the memory and improve the retention-capacity of the learners. In other words, the Silent Way Method links searching, discovering, memory and retention together in order to achieve learning. Like the Cognitive-code Approach, the Silent Way Method also assumes that proper retention links are established in the most silent periods of sleep. Speaking about retention, Earl, W. Stevick (1980), claims that “The mind does much of this work during sleep.” According to Bower, G. H. and Winzenz, D. (1970), memory researches have shown that learner’s “memory benefits from creatively searching out discovering and depicting.” Gattegno, Caleb speaks of remembering as a matter of ‘paying ogdens.’ An ‘ogden’ is claimed to be a unit of mental energy required to link, permanently, two mental elements, such as a shape and a sound or a label and an object. Hence the Silent Way Method links the

process of learning the target language with the potentiality of the learner's memory and retention. Hence, the Silent Way Method is not merely a language teaching method, but it is "a return to our full powers and potentials" through a maximum use of memory and retention.

It is assumed that the Silent Way Method produces 'inner criteria' which plays a central role "in one's education throughout all of one's life." This inner criterion allows learners to monitor their language products and make self-correction to their language production and performance. It is the activity of self-correction through self-awareness that makes the Silent Way Method different from other methods of teaching the language. Therefore, the Silent Way Method considers that errors are inevitable in the process of learning and are, in fact, signs to the teacher that the learner is exploring new areas of the language. According to the Silent Way Method, learning comprises of trial and error by the learner while the teacher is a silent observer and monitor of the whole learning process. Only very necessary help is provided by the teacher to the learners in the process of learning. Thus, in the Silent Way Method, teachers are well aware that while they were silent, learners learn at different rates of learning. Some of them achieve a steady progress in learning while others face problems and commit mistakes. Therefore, learners are not punished for committing mistakes because

teachers aspire for steady progress in the process of learning the language and not for perfection in the learning achievement. Thus, the Silent Way Method viewed learner's errors positively. According to Celce-Murcia, M. (1991), the Silent Way Method overlooks errors, in the process of learning, as inevitable and it de-emphasizes pronunciation. However, the teacher alone does not bear the task of correcting the learners' errors. Learners are allowed to work on language and errors are treated as signs of learning. It means that the Silent Way Method encouraged group work, self-correction and correction by the peers in the class. Thus, in such learning situation, learners have only themselves as individuals and the group to depend on.

Features of the SWM

The key feature of the method, as suggested by its name, is the silence of the teacher. The steps the teacher is expected to adhere to are unique. The teacher remains silent as much as possible. In fact, the use of the silence of the teacher gave the method a unique feature. Silence is used as a tool to trigger thought and learning in the learner. The teacher often appears to be detached from the learners and he remains a neutral observer. He is neither moved by correct performance of the learners nor is he discouraged by the errors committed by the learners. The teacher speaks only if the situations demanded from him to speak. Through teacher's silence, the learners are

stimulated to practice the target language as much as possible. Thus, silence is the basic tool along with students' attention and their interaction among each other. The teacher silently observes the students' interactions and involvement during the process of learning.

However, there is an ambitious aim behind teacher's silence. The Silent Way Method makes the teacher's task confined to utilizing the potential of the students, their memory and retention capacity to the maximum, come out of the way of the learners' process of learning, observe and facilitate, as well, the process of learning. As the formal test is not conducted in the Silent Way Method, thus, the teacher's observation has an important role in evaluating and assessing learner's progress and achievement. The teacher observes and evaluates learner's performance and on the basis of that observation and evaluation, he awards marks to each learner. This allows the teacher to answer, in a straight away, for any problems the learner might face. It means that teachers get feedback by witnessing students' performance and mistakes. Thus, it is the learners' action that makes the teacher understand whether they are following what is taught to them and learning them or not. In fact, the learners consider the teacher emotionally uninvolved, detached and uninterested judge, but at the same time supportive and facilitator.

However, the innovative aspects in the Silent Way Method spring from the material used to explain and

practice the target language, the way in which learning activities are organized and managed, the role of the teacher which is basically a facilitator, a monitor and an observer of the learner's performance and the duty of the learners who are expected to find out their hypothesis about how the target language operates and test it as well by means of performance.

Objectives of the SWM

The main aim of the Silent Way Method is to enable the learner to be creative in using the target language and capable of conveying his ideas, feelings and needs through it. The Silent Way Method aspires to make the learner achieve native-like fluency in the target language by making him depend more on himself than on the teacher. The objective of the Silent Way Method is to enable the beginners of language learning to improve their basic speaking skill in the target language with a good level of articulation ability. In other words, the primary objective of the Silent Way Method is to develop oral-aural skills of the learner in the target language.

The Silent Way Method also aimed to develop the thinking skill of the learners and foster their ability to construct the target language in their minds with a minimum help from the teacher who is supposed to remain a silent observer and a monitor most of the time whereas the learner is an active performer most of the time. Thus, the Silent Way Learning is based on 'Know a

little, say much'. It means that from the meager input the learners receive, they should make as much of it as they can so as to push their communication development outward. Thus, silence of the teacher helps the learners to learn as they would concentrate on the task to be learnt during the silence of the teacher and achieve the potential means of accomplishing learning task. It means that learners involve everything that they know already and the teacher on his part should not disturb the learners in the learning process.

Teaching Material of SWM

The Silent Way Method adopted, basically, the structural syllabus. While conducting the class, the teacher uses gestures and charts in order to elicit and shape the learner's responses. The teacher provides learners with lessons which are planned around grammatical items and related vocabulary. The planned-lessons turn the explicit grammatical material into implicit grammar instructions.

As far as vocabulary is concerned, Gattegno considers vocabulary of the target language as a central factor in language learning. Therefore, the choice of vocabulary is essential in Silent Way Method. Gattegno, Caleb (1972), distinguishes between several classes of vocabulary items such as.

- The 'semi-luxury vocabulary' consists of expressions common to the daily life expressed by the target

language culture. They refer to food, clothing, travel, family life, etc.

- The 'Luxury vocabulary' is used in communicating more specialized ideas, such as political opinions, etc.
- The 'Functional vocabulary' is the most important vocabulary because it deals with the most functional and versatile words of the language.

According to Gattegno, Caleb this 'functional vocabulary' provides a key to comprehend the 'spirit' of the language. These words are referred to as the functional words because of their high utility. Gattegno, Caleb feels that the most important class of vocabulary deals with the most functional and versatile words of the target language. However, many of those classes of the target language vocabulary may not have direct equivalents in the learner's mother tongue.

The materials used in the classroom are designed to be used by the learners and the teacher as well, but independently and cooperatively, in order to promote language learning by direct association between the content of material, teaching and learners' perception, memory and retention. Therefore, the teaching material in the Silent Way Method employs activities that involve the use of a pointer and special color-coded wall charts and set of colored rods for pronunciation and vocabulary, symbols and reading writing exercises to illustrate the relationships between sound and meaning in the target language and ingrain them in the memory of the learner

in addition to the black board. Charts, rods and other aids may be used to elicit learners' responses and make them active in the process of learning. The use of charts, rods and gestures filled the vacuum created by the teachers' silence and became a source of learning.

The first part of the lesson focuses on pronunciation. If the teacher wants to make the learners learn about vowels, he can make charts to familiarize them with vowel and consonant sounds. Sounds are color-coded and each phoneme is a different color and therefore often associated with Cuisenaire rods and wall charts. The learners initiate their learning of language by using its sound system. The sounds are linked to different colors using a sound-color chart that is related to the language being learnt. The rods and color-coded pronunciation charts; Fidel Charts, create memorable images that facilitate learner's retention and recall. These sound-color associations help the learners learn spelling, reading and pronunciation. These visual devices serve as associative mediators for learners' learning, memory, retention and recall.

The Silent Way Method is not only confined to developing basic level of aural/oral proficiency in the beginner learners, but it can also be used to teach reading and writing. The sentence is the basic unit of teaching. The teacher focuses on meaning rather than on communicative value. It provides also the learner with a basic practical knowledge of the grammar of the target

language.

Techniques in the SWM Classroom

The Silent Way Method viewed learning as a problem-solving task and discovering activity in which learners get involved in the process of learning. Therefore, the Silent Way Learning is called a problem-solving approach to learning. This idea was expressed by Benjamin Franklin in the proverb that says:

“Tell me and I forget,
Teach me and I remember,
Involve me and I learn.”

Thus, the Silent Way Method is built around a theory of the conditions necessary for successful learning to be realized. Many of the techniques used in the Silent Way Method are designed to train learners to, consciously, use their intelligence so as to increase their learning potentialities. To consolidate learners' self-confidence, the teacher remains silent, observes and helps the learners when required. Gattegno, Caleb as quoted in Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (1986), says, that “The teacher employs with the student and the student works on the language.” Gattegno, Caleb's writings address learners' needs to feel secure about learning and to assume conscious control of learning.

Teacher's Task in SWM

The Silent Way Method made the teacher a

mere facilitator and made learning an independent and co-operative process. However, the role of the teacher depends upon thorough training and methodological initiation. Earl, W. Stevick (1980), defines the teacher's tasks as follows:

1. to teach
2. to test
3. to get out of the way.

Thus, the tasks of a teacher can be enumerated as follows:

- Remaining silent in the classroom, observing, monitoring and making the learners speak.
- Creating an environment that makes learners get involved, wholeheartedly, in the activities of learning.
- Focusing the attention of the learners on learning and its activities.
- Evaluating learners' language production silently.
- Silently observing and monitoring learners' interactions with each other. He may even leave the class to make learners deal with their linguistic task among each other without any conservation.
- Helping the learners to become self-reliant, cooperative among themselves and independent of the teacher.
- Supporting learners for achieving progress in speaking skill in the target language.
- Assigning a lot of exercises to help learners develop various skills in the target language.

- Allowing learners to detect and correct their own mistakes.
- Presenting teaching item by using nonverbal clues and gestures to give meanings to the learners.
- Resisting their long-standing commitment to model, remodel, assist and direct desired learners' responses.
- Minimizing modeling although much of the activity may be teacher-directed.
- Providing simple linguistic tasks in which the teacher models a word, phrase or sentence and then elicits learner's responses.
- Creating a situation for the learner to practice the structure.
- Making use of learners' knowledge when the teacher introduces the new material and thus moving from the known to the unknown. In other words, the teacher starts with something already known by the learner and makes them move to the unknown.
- Provoking the sounds that are already present in the mother tongue of the learners and then progressing to the improvement of the sounds that are new to the learners.
- Introducing language items to the learner according to the items level of complexity and their relationship to what has been taught in the past including their mother tongue.
- Avoiding praising or criticizing the learners as it will affect their self-confidence.

Learners' Task in SWM

Learning tasks, activities and process encourage and shape learners' oral response without any direct oral instruction from the teacher or unnecessary modeling by him. The tasks of learners are as follows:

- Learners had the primary roles of performers in the classroom.
- They should come to the class with a lot of knowledge and experience from their own mother tongue.
- They should create their own utterances by putting together old and new information.
- They should work with the available resources only and nothing else.
- They should develop independence, autonomy and responsibility.
- They should learn by themselves with the help of the teacher.
- They should feel more comfortable and acquire 'inner criteria' to correct one another and get corrected by one another and feel comfortable towards the same.
- They should learn to work, together; collectively and cooperatively, rather compete each other.
- They make their own generalizations about the learning item, reach to their own conclusions and then formulate whatever rules they themselves feel they need.
- They should respond to commands, questions and visual cues.

- They should learn the sentence patterns, structures and vocabulary till the whole structure is understood.

Merits of SWM

The merits of the Silent Way Method may be enumerated as follows:

- The concepts behind the Silent Way Method continue to be influential and powerful in teaching pronunciation.
- In addition to developing aural-oral skills, the Silent Way Method gives importance also to structures and vocabulary.
- The Silent Way Method tried to develop all skills simultaneously. However, the strongest claim of the Silent Way Learning rests in its comprehension-based feature.
- The Silent Way Method develops the sense of self-confidence in the learner by making him initiative and outcoming.
- The Silent Way Method provides also immediate feedback to, both, the teacher and the learner through the activity of correcting each other.

Demerits of SWM

There have been many criticisms on the Silent Way Method. They may be enumerated as follows:

- The Silent Way Method was not much in practice because the teacher's role was centered only on

introducing and observing rather than truly teaching or correcting the learners.

- The Silent Way Method was considered to be slow though ambitious. Many teachers found it to be unnatural when it comes to implementation.
- The Silent Way Method was used by only a minimum number of teachers as most of the teacher are supposed to work in situations where precision of learning is essential for achieving a tangible progress.
- The Silent Way Method limited the potentialities of, both, the teacher and the learner as during the teacher's silence there are issues which are supposed to be dealt with by teacher and issues which have not been forwarded by the learners.
- The Silent Way Method needs highly qualified teacher who can manage and evaluate the process and progress of learning effectively and confront learning problems which many learners might be nursing, but unable to express them.
- The Silent Way Method was also accused to have no acceptable theory. Therefore, it won't be possible to be implemented by an ordinary teacher.
- The Silent Way Method concentrated very much on structures of the language though it claimed to be developing all skills of the language.
- In the Silent Way Method, some learners only will be initiative and active in the process of learning while

many others would remain passive and unable to participate equally in the learning session.

- In the Silent Way Method, slow and dull learners were not able to be initiative and take up the responsibility to figure out and test the hypothesis.
- The Silent Way Method won't work in large classes which are the basic characteristics of the backward societies.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) or The Communicative Approach (CA)

Failure of Approaches and Methods

Before Communicative Language Approach came into existence, there had been some other language teaching and learning methods which were less widely adopted. Some of them were the *Situational Language Teaching* (whereby grammar and vocabulary are practised through situations), *The Natural Method* (which emphasizes natural acquisition rather than formal grammar study), *The Direct Method* (which uses only the target language), *The Total Physical Response Method* developed by Asher, James (which stresses the importance of motor Activity), *The Silent Way* developed by Gattegno, Caleb (which encourages the teacher to be silent as much as possible), *Suggestopedia* developed by Georgi, Loz (which attempts to harness the influence of suggestion, such as music or art, on human behavior), *Community Language Learning* developed by Curran, C. A. (which allows learners to work together to select what they want to learn) and *The Natural Method* Approach developed by Krashen, S. (which gives more importance to compressible input before expecting the learner to give the output).

However, the methods and approaches which failed to enhance the communicative skill of the learners did not become absolutely obsolete. Many of their principles still remain valid and used within various approaches and methods. It can be said that the spirits of the previous methods and approaches seems to have been cross-pollinated to form the Communicative Language Teaching Approach (CLT). Communicative Approach to language teaching is not a methodology by itself. It presents an approach that has been developing during 1960s and 1970s and has been existing in different names within different methods. Proponents of Communicative Language Approach claimed that all the methods failed to enhance learners' communicative competence. They observed also that learners, who were able to use sentence structures and patterns, committed grave errors while communicating in the target language which indicates that they have not learnt the language as a means of communication, but learnt it as a structure only. The proponents of CA claim that in language courses with structural syllabus, learners learn a lot about grammar, but cannot communicate effectively in the target language. Johnson, R. K. and Morrow, K. (1981), stated that large numbers of learners, in traditional grammar-based courses, are "structurally competent but communicatively incompetent." Littlewood, T. W. (1981), on his part, rejects the notion that "the language competence can be achieved by simply memorizing grammar rules, sentence

patterns and vocabulary. Language is considered a complex system and language learning involves an understanding of how it is actually used.” Hymes, D. (1971), went to the extent of saying that “There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless.” Even ELT practitioners also were dissatisfied with the Structural Approach and other methods which failed to deliver the task of communication skills of learners. Thus, the Communicative Approach claims to enhance the communicative ability of the learners with all the creativity, uniqueness, innovativeness of individual sentences and the functional and Communicative potential of the language itself.

There was a general shift towards applying Communicative Approach in language teaching. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2002), point out that during the 1980s, “Mainstream language teaching on both sides of the Atlantic, however, opted for Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as the recommended basis for language teaching methodology in the 1980s and it continues to be considered the most plausible basis for language teaching today...” Other approaches and methods which have communicative aims similar to those of CLT joined also together to occupy the frontlines of ELT. Thus, Communicative Approach (CA) fully spread during the 1980s as a result of the failure of other approaches and methods to take into consideration the creativity, uniqueness and innovativeness of individual

sentences, the functional and communicative potential of language itself and the importance of making the learner creative and communicative in the target language.

However, Communicative Language Teaching Approach did not depart the disciplines which had influenced the previous approaches and methods. It can be agreed with Sauvignon, S. J. (1991), who says that CLT draws on multidisciplinary perspective that includes also linguistics, psychology, philosophy, sociology, and educational research.

Definition of CA

Kurian, J. (2006), defines Communicative Approach as “a set of principles about teaching including recommendations about method and syllabus where the focus is on meaningful communication not structure. In this approach, students are given tasks to accomplish using language instead of studying the language. The syllabus is based primarily on functional development (asking permission, asking directions, etc.), not structural development (past tense, conditionals, etc.) In essence, a functional syllabus replaces a structural syllabus. There was a tendency to shift from structure to communicative competence. There was less emphasis on error correction as fluency and communicative competence become more important than accuracy. Authentic and meaningful language input becomes more important. The class becomes more student-centered as students accomplish

their tasks with other students, while the teacher plays more of an observer's role." Harmer, Jeremy (2007), states: "Because of the focus of communicative activities and the concentration on language as a means of communication such an approach has been called the communicative approach."

Theoretical Origin of CLT

As it was mentioned earlier, CLT originated as a result of the discontent about other methods and approaches which failed to enhance the communicative skill of the learner. The origin of CLT in its rudimentary form goes back to the changes in the American and British language teaching thoughts which took place in the late of 1960s. It was a response to the problem of language learning which produced learners who may be structurally competent, but they were not capable of communicating appropriately.

Before the appearance of Communicative Approach, language was taught by practicing basic structures in meaningful situation-based activities. But just as the linguistic theory underlying Audio-Lingualism was rejected in the U.S.A. in the mid-sixties, the British applied linguists also began questioning the theoretical assumptions underlying the Situational Language Teaching. Howatt, A. R. P. (1984), observes, "By the end of the sixties it was clear that the situational approach had run its course. There was no future in continuing to pursue

the chimera of predicting language on the basis of situational events. What was required was a closer study of language itself and a return to the traditional concept that utterances carried meaning in themselves and expressed the meanings and intentions of the speakers and writers who created them.” These rejections of what was existing and questioning it led to, in the words of Howatt, A. R. P. (1984), “a closer study of the language itself and a return to the traditional concept that utterances carried meaning in themselves and expressed the meanings and intentions of the speakers and writers who created them.”

The Communicative Language Teaching started distinctively in 1970s with the work of American and British linguists who undertook the study of discourse and language in its social and functional context to new heights. In fact, CLT is based on the theories of British functional linguists such as Firth, J. R. and Halliday, M. A. K. as well as the American Linguist Naom, Chomsky. Thus, the focus on communicative factor has an antecedent in the work of anthropologist Malinowski, B. and his colleague; the linguist Firth, J. R. who stressed the broader socio-cultural context of language which included participants, their beliefs and behavior and the objects of linguistic discussion and word choice as well.

Scholars like Candlin, C. and Widdowson, H. G. drew on the work of British functional linguists like Firth, J. R. and Halliday, M. A. K. and the American sociolinguists like Hymes, D. and Labov, W. The works

of both Halliday, M. A. K. (1978), and Hymes, D. (1971), have been concerned with the interaction between the social context, grammar and meaning which are important to the development of Communicative Approach.

The American Linguist Naom, Chomsky rejected what has been going on in the name of language teaching which was absolutely contradictory with the nature and characteristics of language. Therefore, Chomsky, N. rejected the psychological theory of behaviorist assumptions which had been the basis of the Structural Approach. Instead, he emphasized the importance of cognition in human language activity. In 1957, N. Chomsky's Syntactic Structures brought about a complete change in the linguistic philosophy. Chomsky, N. offered a radically different views about language acquisition based on a theory of Transformational Generative Grammar (TGG) that theorized about linguistic competence. He introduced two important distinctions: 'Competence' versus 'Performance' and 'Deep Structure' versus 'Surface Structure.' For Chomsky, grammar is a reproduction of what is there in the human mind in the form of the rules of 'linguistic competence'. Thus, the Communicative Approach was largely based on the mentalist view of language acquisition. The focus of grammar is, thus, not the linguistic structure but human mind itself. Berns, M. S. (1990), an expert in the field of CLT remarks: "Language is interaction; it is an

interpersonal activity and has a clear relationship with a society. In this light, language study has to look at the use (function) of language in context, both its linguistic context (what is uttered before and after a given piece of discourse) and its social and situational context (who is speaking, what their social roles are, why they have come together to speak).” Communicative competence, hence, includes the ability to use linguistic forms to perform communicative acts and to understand the communicative functions of utterances. Consequently, attention shifted from acquiring grammar to use the language in communicative purposes. In other words, there was a focus on the use of utterance in communicative acts and not on the utterance alone. Thus, the American linguist Chomsky, N. and the British applied linguists emphasized the fundamental characteristics of a language as mentioned below:

1. The creativity, innovativeness and uniqueness of individual sentences.
2. The functional and communicative potential of language.

Some sociolinguists also gave similar opinions about language teaching/learning. The studies of the sociolinguistics aspects of the language made scholars like Hymes, D. (1972), claim that “...a normal child acquires knowledge of sentences not only as grammatical, but also as appropriate. He or she acquires competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about

with whom, when, where, in what manner. In short, a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others.” D. Hymes’ theory defined what a learner needs to know in language in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. According to him, a person who acquires communicative competence acquires, both, knowledge and ability to language use. However, later on, Hymes, D. revised this term and gave more exhaustive thought. He was of the opinion that communicative competence is a combination of, both, the ‘Linguistic Competence’ and the ‘Sociolinguistic Competence.’ Linguistic Competence comprises (i) Grammatical Competence and (ii) Repertoire of Language. Sociolinguistic Competence comprises (i) Appropriateness and (ii) Socio-Cultural Significance.

Nevertheless, in the new trend, fluency is stressed rather than accuracy. Therefore, mistakes are not corrected every time. In fact, mistakes are considered to be part of the process of learning. Interlanguage studies also focus on mistakes when they claim that in the process of learning the target language, learners have to go through stages of approximation to the target language in which committing mistakes is unavoidable. Chomsky, N. (1965) said, “Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener in a completely homogenous speech community who knows its language

perfectly and its unaffected by such Grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitation, distraction, shifts of attention and interest and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance.” Thus, for Chomsky, the focus of linguistic theory is to characterize the abstract abilities speakers possess that enable them to produce grammatically correct sentences in a language.

However, Hymes, D. held that such a view of linguistic theory which claims that linguistic theory needed to be seen as part of a more general theory incorporating communication and culture is sterile. Hymes’ theory of ‘Communicative Competence’ (CC) is a definition of what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community. In Hymes’ view, a person who acquires Communicative Competence acquires both knowledge and ability for language use with respect to: Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible; Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible by virtue of the means of implementation available; Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate (adequate, happy, successful in relation) to a context in which it is used and evaluated; Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what doing it entails. This theory of what knowing a language entails with its social, cultural and communicative dimensions offers a much more comprehensive view than Chomsky’s view of

competence, which deals, primarily, with abstract grammatical knowledge.

Halliday, M. A. K., on his part, has elaborated a powerful theory of the functions of language, which complements Hymes' view of Communicative Competence. Halliday, M. A. K. (1970), states, "Linguistics...is concerned...with the description of speech acts of texts, since only through the study of language in use are all functions of language, and therefore all components of meaning, brought into focus." Thus, it is clear that Communicative Language Teaching has been influenced by sociolinguistics and applied linguistics which give more importance to not only the meaning of the language, but also to the function of the language. Learning a language was similarly viewed by proponents of CLT as acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions. Halliday, M. A. K. (1975), describes seven basic functions that language performs for children learning their first language. According to him, "Learning a Second language was similarly viewed by proponents of communicative language teaching as acquiring the linguistic means to perform different kinds of functions." The basic seven functions of language are as below:

1. The instrumental function: using language to get things;
2. The regulatory function: using language to control the Behavior of others;

3. The interactional function: using language to create interaction with others;
4. The personal function: using language to express personal feelings and meanings;
5. The heuristic function: using language to learn and to discover;
6. The imaginative function: using language to create a world of imagination;
7. The representational function: using language to communicate information.

Almost all the writers on CLT such as Brumfit, C. and Johnson, K. (1979), Widdowson, H. G. (1998), Savington, S. (1983), seem to accept Halliday's functional account of language use. Halliday's elaborated theory of the functions of the language, complemented Hymes' view of communicative competence. Thus, many arguments against grammar teaching have been influenced by applied linguistics. Krashen, S. D. (1981), for example, posits the Monitor Model, in which he distinguishes between 'acquisition' and 'learning'. Acquisition is the unconscious learning of the grammar of language whereas learning is the conscious imbibing of language rules and using them in the act of communication. Learning grammar consciously is useful when the learner uses this knowledge as self-check of a monitor on mistakes. Consequently, CLT questioned the teaching of formal grammar as an end in itself. Its reluctance to focus on form-based teaching/learning has

created a situation in which even informal grammar is not taught in the communication classroom. The main goal was to develop the Communicative Competence (CC) of the learner.

CC: Concept and Definition

An important theoretical principle underlying the Communicative Language Teaching movement was called ‘Communicative Competence’ by Hymes, D. (1971). The goal of language teaching is to develop what Hymes, D. (1971), referred to as ‘Communicative Competence’. He coined this term in order to contrast a communicative view of language and Chomsky’s theory of Competence. Speaking about the term ‘Communicative’, Widdowson, H. G. (1998), says, “Neither producing similar type of sentences in a random manner nor producing sentences describing some situations without any purpose is communicative.” The term ‘Communicative Competence’ was first used by Habermas, J. in (1970).

Littlewood, T. W. (1981), defines Communicative Competence as “a degree of mastery of a very considerable range of linguistic and social skills of the language which depend in part on the learner’s sensitivity to meaning and appropriacy in language as well as on the learner’s ability to develop effective strategies for communicating in the target language.” According to Widdowson, H. G. (1998), Communicative Competency

is “the ability to produce sentences for communicative effect.” Widdowson, H. G. (1998), believes that by using a Communicative Approach, language can be developed incidentally, as a by-product of using it, and that knowing will emerge from doing. Defining Communicative Competence, Vijaya, Kohli (1989), says, “Communicative Competence is linguistic competence plus an understanding of the appropriate use of language in its various contexts.” Scrivener, J. (2005), defines Communicative Competence as “being able to use the language for meaningful communication.”

Clarifying the concept of Communicative Competence, Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), writes, “Communicative Competence involves being able to use the language appropriate to a given social context.” Thus, Communicative Competence is the ability to use language to convey and interpret meaning. Communicative Competence refers to the ability of the learner not only to apply the grammatical rules of the target language he is learning in order to form grammatically correct sentences, but also to know when and where to use these sentences and with whom; their contextual and social functions.

Different notions of Communicative Competence have also been proposed by other linguists. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), have discussed Communicative Competence by referring to Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980), in the following manner: “Four dimensions of

communicative competence are identified: grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. *Grammatical competence* refers to what Chomsky calls linguistic competence and what Hymes intends by what is 'formally possible.' It is the domain of grammatical and lexical capacity. *Sociolinguistic competence* refers to an understanding of the social context in which communication takes place, including role relationships, the shared information of the participants, and the communicative purpose for their interaction. *Discourse competence* refers to the interpretation of individual message elements in terms of their interconnectedness and of how meaning is represented in relationship to the entire discourse or text. *Strategic competence* refers to the copying strategies that communicators employ to initiate, terminate, maintain, repair, and redirect communication.' The three components of the first model were grammatical, sociolinguistic and strategic competence. Pragmatic ability is included under sociolinguistic competence which is called rules of use.

Dimensions of the Communicative Competence

Littlewood, T. W. (1981), offers the different dimensions of communicative approach. He feels that learners must learn to interpret social situations in which communication takes place because it is the social

situation which determines the nature of language. He states the following four broad domains of skill make up a person's Communicative Competence:

1. The learner must achieve as high a degree of linguistic competence. In other words, the learner must develop a skill in manipulating the linguistic system of the language to the level which he can use it spontaneously and flexibly in order to express his intended message.
2. The learner must distinguish between the forms which he has learned as part of his linguistic competence and the communicative functions that they perform. In other words, items mastered as part of a linguistic system must also be understood as part of communicative system.
3. The learner must develop skills and strategies for using language to communicate meanings as effectively as possible in concrete situations. He must learn to use feedback to judge his success and if necessary and remedy failure by using a different language.
4. The learner must become aware of the social meaning of language forms he learnt. For many learners, this may not entail the ability to vary their own speech to suit different social circumstances, but rather the ability to use generally acceptable forms and avoid potentially offensive ones.

Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980), proposed an influential and comprehensive review of Communicative Competence for language instruction and testing. Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980), on their part, gave four

dimensions of Communicative Competence:

1. Grammatical Competence: It is the dimension of Communicative Competence which emphasizes on grammatical rules of language such as lexical rules, morphological rules, rules of syntax, rules of sentence-formation, semantic rules and phonological rules.
2. Sociolinguistic Competence: It refers to how the language learner/speaker uses the language according to socio-cultural rules.
3. Discourse Competence: It refers to the logical connection of sentences in larger patterns for a meaningful discourse.
4. Strategic Competence: It refers to the strategies of breakdowns in communication according to the situation.

Bachman, L. F. (1990), incorporated ideas from models of Canale, M. and Swain, M. (1980), as well as Sauvignon, S. J. (1983), and suggested a model of Communicative Competence which was called Communicative Language Ability (CLA). Bachman's model of Communicative Competence is an expansion of earlier models. However, it is different from them in two ways: (i) It clearly distinguishes between what constitutes knowledge and what constitutes a skill. (ii) It explicitly characterizes the processes by which the various components interact with each other and with the context in which language is used.

CC vis-a-vis Grammatical Competence

Communicative Competence should not be confused with Linguistic Competence since Linguistic Competence can only contribute to Communicative Competence, but it can't replace it. It means that the proponents of the CLT want to say that it may be possible that a learner to be linguistically competent, yet he may be communicatively incompetent.

Widdowson, H. G. (1979), notes, "Communicative competence is not a compilation of items in memory, but a set of strategies or creative procedures for realizing the value of linguistic elements in contexts of use, an ability to make sense as a participant in written or spoken discourse by shared knowledge of code resources and rules of language use." Grammatical Competence refers to what Chomsky, N. calls Linguistic Competence and what Hymes, D. intends by what is 'formally possible'. Linguistic Competence is the grammatical, lexical, morphological and semantic knowledge which is important for producing language accurately in a given situation. Thus, Linguistic Competence is the correct manipulation of a language system whereas Communicative Competence is the appropriate use of relevant strategies to deal communicatively and meaningfully with certain language context. Linguistic Competence deals primarily with the abstract grammatical knowledge of the language whereas Communicative Competence aims to develop the ability

to use that grammatical knowledge to perform, meaningfully, different kinds of communicative functions such as greetings, enquiring, requesting, warning, suggesting, advising, describing, reporting, agreeing, promising, apologizing, showing surprise etc. This idea can rightly be testified in the words of Habermas, J. (1970), who states, “Communicative competence should be related to a system of rules generating an ideal speech situation, not regarding linguistic codes that link language and universal pragmatics with actual role systems.”

Thus, the concept of Communicative Competence has been modified and complemented over years by linguists themselves such as Chomsky N., Hymes D., Canale M., Swain M., Widdowson H. G. and Bachman, L. F. Consequently, Communicative Approach won credence by its emphasis on meaning, fluency, interaction, communicative competence, tolerance of errors and the acceptance of creative factors in both teaching and learning. Hence, new ideas like Sociolinguistic Competence, i.e. the competence to communicate in a social environment, etc., were attempts to give further ability to theorize and conceptualize about language teaching. Therefore, approaches changed and shifted from drills, translations and memorization to problem solving, activities including information gaps, etc.

Although Communicative Competence encompasses more than just Linguistic Competence,

Linguistic Competence is not just confined to making the learner capable of handling the structure of the language, rather, it enables the learner to make an appropriate use of language in real life communicative context. Thus, the general trend was towards a communicative approach to language teaching.

Littlewood, T. W. (1981), says that Communicative Approach, “Makes us more strongly aware that it is not enough to teach learners how to manipulate the structures of the foreign language. They must also develop strategies for relating these structures to their communicative functions in real situations and real time.” In the words of Littlewood, T. W. (1981), “A communicative approach considers language not only in terms of communicative function that it performs.” Littlewood, T. W. (1981), adds that “the CLT pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language, combining these into a more fully communicative view.” He further adds that CLT, “encourages us to go beyond structures and take account of other aspects of communication. It can therefore help us to match the content more closely with the actual communicative uses that the learners will have to make of the foreign language.” For Littlewood, T. W. (1984), “we can combine the newer functional view of language with the traditional structural view in order to achieve a more complete communicative perspective.” Hence, Communicative Approach takes into consideration not only the language forms, but also what

speakers do with those forms when they communicate with each other. Thus, communicative approach covers a wider perspective of language teaching/learning. It combines the functional and the structural aspects of the language to achieve appropriate and creative communicative competence and strategy that transcends mere memorization of the language forms and patterns. Prabhu, N. S. (1987), says that a language structure is best acquired when the learners' attention is on meaning. At then, the learner is preoccupied with understanding, giving and receiving messages.

According to Widdowson, H. G. (1998), communicative abilities are "those skills which are defined with reference to the manner and mode in which the system is realized as use... Communicative abilities embrace linguistic skills but not the reverse." Widdowson, H. G. (1998), brings out the relationship between linguistic systems and their communicative values in text and discourse. He focuses on the communicative acts underlying the ability to use language for different purposes. According to Munby, J. (1978), "Communicative competence includes the ability to use linguistic forms to perform communicative functions of sentences and their relationship to other sentences."

Assumptions of CLT

According to Richards, J. C. (2006), some of the core assumptions of current CLT are:

- Interaction and meaningful communication facilitate the target language learning.
- Effective tasks and exercises provide opportunities for students to negotiate meaning and expand their language resources in the classroom.
- Meaningful communication is the outcome of students' focus on the content that is relevant, purposeful, interesting and engaging.
- Communication is a holistic process that often entails upon the use of several language skills or modalities.
- Language learning is a gradual process of creative use of language based on trial and error.
- Language learning is facilitated through activities that involve inductive or discovery learning of underlying rules of language (language analysis and reflection).
- Learners are different in terms of needs, motivations and progress for language learning and they develop their own routes to language learning.
- Successful language learning is the product of using effective learning and communication strategies.
- The role of teacher has the role of a facilitator in the language classroom.
- The classroom is characterized with collaboration and sharing.

Objectives of the CLT

The key objective of CLT is the acquisition of communicative competence. It aims at developing communicative competence of the learners rather than their linguistic competence. It means that the goal is not just communication, but to attain communicative competence. CLT lays emphasis on the semantic aspect of language. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), Communicative Approach aims to “(a) make communicative competence the goal of language teaching and (b) develop procedures for the teaching of the four language skills that acknowledge the interdependence of language and communication.”

Piepho, H. E. (1981), discusses the following levels of objectives in Communicative Approach:

1. an integrative and content level (language as a means of expression);
2. a linguistic and instrumental level, (language as a semantic system and an object of learning);
3. an affective level of interpersonal relationships and conduct (language as means of expressing values and judgment about oneself and others);
4. a level of individual learning needs, (remedial learning based on error analysis);
5. a general educational level of extra-linguistic goals (language learning within the school curriculum).

According to Nattinger, J. R. (1984), “The intention of Communicative Language Teaching is to

emulate those occasions which often occur in real life wherein people are called upon to redirect their communication in response to newly introduced facts and events.”

Principles of the CA

Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (1986), has summarized the principles of the Communicative Approach as follows:

1. Whenever possible, authentic language as it is used in a real context - should be introduced.
2. Being able to figure out the speaker's/writer's intention is part of being communicatively competent.
3. The target language is the object of the study.
4. One function can have many different linguistic forms. Since the focus of the course is on real language use, a variety of linguistic forms are presented together.
5. Students should work with language at the discourse or suprasentential level. They must learn about cohesion and coherence.
6. Students should be given an opportunity to express their ideas and opinions.
7. Errors are tolerated and seen as a natural outcome of the development of communication skills. Students' success is determined as much by their fluency as it is by their accuracy.
8. One of the teacher's major responsibilities is to establish situations likely to promote communication.

9. Communicative interaction encourages co-operative relationships among students. It gives students an opportunity for negotiating meaning.
10. The social context of the communicative event is essential in giving meaning to the utterances.
11. Learning to use language forms appropriately is an important part of communicative competence.
12. The teacher acts as an advisor during communicative activities.
13. In communicating a speaker has a choice not only of what to say, but also how to say it.
14. The grammar and vocabulary that the students learn follow from the function, suitable context and the roles of the interlocutors.
15. Students should be given opportunities to develop strategies for interpreting language as it is actually used by native speakers.

Characteristics of the CA

Summarizing the main characteristics of the Communicative Approach Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), assert:

- i) Language is a system for the expression of meaning.
- ii) The primary function of language is for interaction and communication.
- iii) The structure of language reflects its functional and communicative uses.
- iv) The primary units of language are not merely its

grammatical and structural features, but categories of functional and communicative meaning as exemplified in discourse.”

Thus, the characteristics of CLT can be enumerated as follows:

- The Communicative Approach is based upon the concept of using the language meaningfully, situationally and appropriately.
- The Communicative Approach makes the learner possess the ability to use the language appropriately and meaningfully. It means that the Communicative Approach gives emphasis on language in use.
- The Communicative Approach is concerned with the utility of language in social context and communicative situations.
- The CLT is not only confined to the skills of listening and speaking, it includes also the skills of reading and writing. It means that Communicative Approach emphasizes on the development of the four skills of the language, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- In Communicative Approach the priority is given to conversational interaction among the learners. The learners communicate their ideas through dialogue, discussions, role-plays, interaction, etc.
- In Communicative Approach, the learning effort lays less stress on grammar and structure of the language and the focus is, mainly, to make language learning

concentrate on its communicative aspects and not on its mechanical aspects.

- In Communicative Approach the focus is on the learner whereas the teacher is just a facilitator of the process of learning. He manages the learning environment and provides the authentic material which helps learners to become autonomous in their efforts to learn the target language.

Features of CLT

CLT places a great emphasis on helping learners to use different forms of the target language in a variety of contexts so as to perform different functions or to express different meanings. Given below is Nunan's (1991), list of features of CLT which is one of the most recognized of these lists:

1. Emphasizing on the interaction in the target language for learning it.
2. Providing learners with opportunities to focus not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
3. The introduction of authentic materials into the learning situation.
4. An enhancement of the learner's own responsibility and contribution to learning the target language.
5. Creating a link between classroom language learning and language activities outside the classroom.

Littlewood, T. W. (1981), states, "one of the most characteristic features of communicative language

teaching is that it pays systematic attention to functional as well as structural aspects of language.”

Finocchiaro, M. and Brumfit, J. C. (1983), list the major distinctive features of Communicative Language Teaching as follows:

1. Meaning is paramount.
2. Dialogues, if used, center on communicative functions and are not normally memorize.
3. Contextualization is a basic premise.
4. Language learning is learning to communicate.
5. Effective communication is sought.
6. Drilling may occur, but peripherally.
7. Comprehensible pronunciation is sought.
8. Any device, which helps the learners, is accepted, varying according to their age, interest, etc.
9. Attempts to communicate may be encouraged from the very beginning.
10. Judicious use of native language is accepted wherever feasible.
11. Translation may be used where students need or benefit from it.
12. Reading and writing can start from the first day, if desired.
13. The target linguistic system will be learnt best through the process of struggling to communicate.
14. Communicative competence is the desired goal (i.e. the ability to use linguistic system effectively and appropriately).

15. Linguistic variation is a central concept in materials and methodology.
16. Sequencing is determined by any consideration of content, function or meaning, which maintain interest,
17. Teachers help learners in any way that motivates them to work with the language.
18. The individual often through trial and error creates language.
19. Fluency and acceptable language is the primary goal: accuracy is judged not in the abstract but in context.
20. Students are expected to interact with other people, either in the flesh, through pair and group work, or in their writings.
21. The teacher cannot know exactly what language the student will use.
22. Intrinsic motivation which springs from an interest in what is being communicated by the language.

The features of CLT, as pointed out by Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), are:

1. There is no systematicity in terms of structures or teaching items and situations.
2. Problem solving activities or tasks form the main thrust of teaching items and situations.
3. In dealing with the class, the teacher controls his/her language as an adult does while talking to a child. This is known as a natural control.
4. In communicative teaching the learner has to engage with more than one language items that are required for

problem solving activities at the same time.

5. Production of a language item (using the language item) need not necessarily follow the reception of it. With natural language acquisition there is a prolonged period of absorption. At some point, the learners begin to produce language relevant to the situation and this picks up rapidly.

Syllabus/Material in CLT

The spirit of Communicative Approach seems to have derived its teaching/learning philosophy from the way Montaigne, M. learned Latin through conversation and not through translation. Sauvignon, S. J. (1983), offers a commentary by Montaigne, M. on his learning of Latin through conversation rather than through translation. Montaigne, M., as quoted in Garoon, Wheeler (2013), says, “Without methods, without a book, without grammar or rules, without a whip and without tears, I had learned a Latin as proper as that of my school-master.” This anti-instructional view can be referred to, according to Hilgard, E. R. and Bower, G. H. (1966), as “learning by doing” or “the experience approach.” This notion of direct rather than delayed practice of communicative acts is central to most Communicative Language Teaching resources and material which concentrate on appropriate meaning. Scrivener, J. (2005), claims, that nowadays a great emphasis is put on ‘communication of meaning.’ Wilkins, D. A. (1972), analyzed the

communicative meanings by saying that “a language learner needs to understand and express rather than describe the core of language through traditional concepts of grammar and vocabulary.” He described two types of meanings:

- (1) Notional Categories (concepts such as time, sequence, quantity, location, frequency). The term notional means assumed to be actual or real for a particular purpose based on guesses or estimates, and
- (2) Communication Function (requests, denials, offers, complaints).

Wilkins, D. A. (1972), later revised and expanded his document into a book called ‘Notional Syllabuses’ (1976), which had a significant impact on the development of CLT material and syllabuses. This functional and communicative potential of language was not properly addressed in methods used until the 1970s because the focus was more on mastery of structures; namely, grammar and vocabulary, than on communicative proficiency. According to Wilkins, D. A. (1976), the grammatical syllabus is an answer to the question ‘how?’ How do speakers of a language express themselves? The situational syllabus is a response to the question ‘when?’ or ‘where?’ When and where will the learner need the target language? A more fundamental question than these two is ‘what are the notions that the learner will expect to be able to express through the target language?’ The outcome of the Notional Categories and the

Communication Function is the construction of a notional-functional syllabus, which establishes the grammatical means by which the relevant notions and communicative functions are expressed. Wilkins, D. A. (1976), defended the introduction of the notional syllabus by saying, “The advantage of the notional syllabus is that it takes the communicative facts of language into account from the beginning without losing sight of grammatical and situational factors. It is potentially superior to the grammatical syllabus because it will produce a communicative competence and because its evident concern with the use of language will sustain the motivation of the learners.”

However, criticizing the notional-functional categories Widdowson, H. G. (1979), argued that notional-functional categories provide “only a very partial and imprecise description of certain semantic and pragmatic rules which are used for reference when people interact. They tell us nothing about the procedures people employ in the application of these rules when they are actually engaged in communicative activity. If we are to adopt a communicative approach to teaching which takes as its primary purpose the development of the ability to do things with language, then it is discourse which must be at the centre of our attention.”

Whereas Prabhu, N. S. (1983), on his part, regards task-specification and task-organization as the appropriate criteria for communicative syllabus as: “The

only form of syllabus which is compatible with and can support communicational teaching seems to be a purely procedural one-which lists in more or less detail, the types of tasks to be attempted in the classroom and suggests an order of complexity for tasks of the same kind.”

Nevertheless, the era was the era of Communicative Language Teaching, therefore, communicative material spread and dominated the teaching contexts. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), stated that “A wide variety of materials have been used to support communicative approaches to language teaching. Unlike some contemporary methodologies, such as Community Language Learning. Practitioners of Communicative Language Teaching view materials as a way of influencing the quality of classroom interaction and language use. Materials thus have the primary role of a promoting communicative language use.”

CLT stresses on authentic materials. Peacock, M. (1997), defines authentic texts as materials that have been produced for some social purpose in the language community. Authentic materials are produced for native speakers’ use in society and for functional purposes and not for language education. According to Shuja, A. and Bameri, M. (2012), authentic materials help bring the real world into the classroom. They can play instrumental as well as motivational role in language teaching and learning by creating a strong link between in-classroom learning and functional use of language beyond the

classroom. The main advantages of using authentic materials are:

- i. Learners' motivation enhancement.
- ii. Genuine cultural information.
- iii. Real language exposure.
- iv. Close relevance to learners' needs.
- v. Adding creativity to teaching.

Teachers' Role in CLT

Littlewood, T. W. (1981), spells out the teacher's role in communicative activities: "If learners find themselves unable to cope with demands of a situation, the teacher can offer advice or provide necessary language items. If pupils cannot agree on any point, he can resolve their disagreement. In other words, he is available as a source of guidance and help. His presence in this capacity may be an important psychological support for many learners, especially for those who are slow to independence. While learners are performing, the teacher can monitor their strength and weakness. Even though he may not intervene at the time, he can use weaknesses as signs of learning needs later...There may be some occasion when 'the teacher decides to exercise a more immediate influence over the language used. Most obviously, he may need to discourage learners from resorting to their mother tongue in moments of difficulty. He may also decide that a particular error is so important that he must correct it at

once, to prevent it from becoming fixed in the learner's speech."

In Communicative Language Teaching, teacher's role is determined by the view of teaching adopted. Breen, M. P. and Candlin, C. (1980), describe teacher's role in the following terms: "The teacher has two main roles: the first is to facilitate the communication process between all participants in the classroom, and between these participants and various activities and texts. The second is to act as an independent participant within the learning-teaching group. The latter role is closely related to the objectives of the first role and arises from it. These roles imply a set of secondary roles for the teacher; first, as an organiser of resources and as a resource himself, second as a guide within the classroom procedures and activities... A third role for the teacher is that of a researcher and learner with much to contribute in terms of appropriate knowledge and abilities, actual and observed experience of the nature of learning and organizational capacities."

Jadeja, R. P. and Natraj, S. (2004), explained ground rules of Communicative Approach for teachers in the following ways:

1. Initially, speak quite a lot.
2. Do not speak ALL the time.
3. Focus on Meaning.
4. Do not correct the errors immediately.
5. Do not correct ALL the errors.

6. Allow the students to talk in class.
7. Do not translate everything.
8. Please encourage effort to comprehend.
9. Use contemporary Reference Books.
10. Assign Self-learning Tasks.

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1994), define the role of language, learners and teachers as follows:

1. Language should be a means to an end and the focus should be on meaning, not on the form.
2. The learner has to formulate and produce ideas, information and opinions and so on.
3. Teacher intervention to correct mistakes should be minimal as this distracts from communication.

Learners' Role in in CLT

The old approaches and methods could not develop the communication skill in the learners. Therefore, the modern approaches and methods became learner-centred. Broughton, G., et al. (1994), say that “the language student is best motivated by practice in which he senses the language is truly communicative, that it is appropriate to its context, that his teacher’s skills are moving him forward to a fuller competence in a foreign language.” Littlewood, T. W. (1981), says, “Foreign language learners need opportunities to develop the skills, by being exposed to situations...the learners need to acquire not only repertoire of linguistic items, but repertoire of strategies for using them in concrete situations.”

According to Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), in CLT, “almost everything that is done is done with a communicative intent: students use the language a great deal through communicative activities such as games, role plays and problem-solving tasks.” Rivers, M. W. (1983), prefers a class where “students never allow themselves to become absorbed in any activity on the way as an end in itself.” It is the co-operative approach to learning on which Breen, M. P. and Candlin, C. (1980), stress in CLT. Students interact primarily with each other rather than with the teacher. Breen, M. P. and Candlin, C. (1980), describe the learner’s role within CLT in the following terms: “The role of the learner as negotiator-between the self, the learning process, and the object of learning, emerges from and interacts with the role of joint negotiator within the group and within the classroom procedures and activities, which the group undertakes. The implication for the learner is that he should contribute as much as he gains, and thereby learn in an interdependent way.” According to Naiman, N., et al. (1978), the most successful learners are not necessarily those to whom a language comes very easily, but those who have positive task orientation, ego involvement, need for achievement, high aspirations, goal orientation, perseverance, tolerance of ambiguity.

An important aspect of Communicative Approach is the learners’ active involvement in the process of learning the target language. They are given sufficient

opportunities to become active participants in the learning process and effort by assuming responsibility for their learning and get involved into it as if they are living in an actual social context. In fact, Communicative Approach views the classroom as a social context. It is well known that those who actively participate in the social context learn better than those who do not do so. Bax, S. (2003), says that the social context in which language learning/teaching takes place “is the key factor in successful language learning.” The social context in which Communicative Approach itself had been developed was conducive for practicing the process of learning the target language. Watts, E. (2003), echoes this fact by saying, “In Europe, where the communicative approach evolved, students are exposed to the target language outside the classroom through television, film, pop music and the ease of travel to English-speaking areas. Classes are equipped with tape-recorders and videos, which provide examples of authentic speech, and teachers can monitor their students’ ability to speak because they have relatively small groups.”

According to Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), high degree of student-student interaction is one of the most obvious characteristics of communicative classroom. Students use the target language through communicative activities such as games, role play, pair work, group work and problem-solving activities. Student-student interaction is facilitated by the teacher who does not talk at

length, but gives the learner to do so with each other. The teacher's task is to set the scene by establishing situations that promote communication among learners. According to Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), learners are given opportunity to express themselves to each other and to the teacher. Exercises are not tightly controlled. They are not restricted to use certain forms dictated by the teacher or materials. They have the choice over 'what to say' and 'how to say it'.

Bose, Kshanika (1999), states that the learner's role in the Communicative Approach is that of a negotiator between the self, the learning process and the object of learning. He further anticipates that "there may be situations where there will be no text, grammar rules are not presented, classroom arrangement is undecided, and students are expected to interact primarily with each other. Errors are likely to occur but correction of errors may be infrequent. The learners are expected to realize that the learning of the language is a joint responsibility."

Legacy of the CLT

When the CLT appeared, it promised the practitioners with high learning outputs in the field of language learning. However, it was not free from getting subject to various types of criticism. A perennial criticism of CLT is that it may produce fluent, but inaccurate learners in the same way that natural language learning may lead to fossilization in pidgin; a simplified form of

the target language. Hughes, A. (1983), considers this problem and concludes: “A teaching method which generated the pidgin like language of the early stages of natural language learning need to be disallowed on the grounds that errors would become established and prove impossible to eradicate. There are good reasons for making the foreign language learning task more like which is faced by the untutored second language learner.”

Swan, M. (1985), tries to confront the assumptions of the Communicative Approach and argues against the claims that the traditional structure-based courses have neglect the teaching of functions, notions and skills. He writes: “It is quite false to represent older courses as concentrating throughout on form at the expense of meaning, or as failing to teach people to do things with language.”

Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), present some of the important questions which are raised by the applied linguists and pedagogues alike regarding the Communicative Approach. They say, “The communicative approach raised important issues for teacher training, materials development and testing and evaluation. Questions that have been raised include whether a communicative approach can be applied at all levels in a teaching programme, whether it requires existing grammar-based syllabus to be abandoned or merely revised, how much an approach can be evaluated, how suitable it is for nonnative teachers and how it can be

adopted in situations where students must continue to take grammar-based texts.”

Merits of CA

Swan, M. (1985), concedes that we have, by and large, gained more than we have lost from the Communicative Approach in that it has helped us to analyze and teach the language of interaction. We can benefit from the innovative language teaching methodologies only if “we can keep our heads, recognize dogma for what it is, and try out the new techniques without giving up useful older methods simply because they have been proved wrong.”

The merits of Communicative Approach may be enumerated as follows:

- The Communicative Approach gives equal importance to all the four basic linguistic skills; namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- The Communicative Approach aspires to develop the speech ability among the learners.
- The Communicative Approach emphasizes on the functional value of the target language, but at the same time it does not separate that functional value from the linguistic competence.
- The Communicative Approach motivates the learners and enables them to communicate their ideas inside and outside the classroom.

Demerits of CA

Teachers' way of implementing a method may be behind its success or failure. Criticizing the existing teaching practices, Rivers, M. W. (1983), writes that some teachers "take their students by routes that are circuitous, lead to dead ends, backtrack, and make the going rough and difficult, so that attention is on the going instead of the destination, and students begin to feel the journey itself is the most important thing, completely losing sight of the goal." Swan, M. (1985), exposed the faults of Communicative Approach as follows: "Along with its many virtues the communicative approach has most of the typical vices of an intellectual revolution; it over-generalises valid but limited insights until they become virtually meaningless; it makes exaggerated claims for the power and novelty of its doctrines; it misrepresents the currents of thoughts it has replaced; it is often characterized by serious intellectual confusion; it is choked with jargon."

Criticizing CLT, Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), said, "there is no single text or authority on it, nor any single model that is universally accepted as authoritative." Some experts like Nunan, D. (1987), and Thornbury, S. (1996), have gone to the extent of saying that the so-called communicative classrooms are anything else but communicative. Nunan, D. (1987), concluded that in one of the classes he observed "there is growing evidence

that, in communicative class, interactions may, in fact, not be very communicative after all.”

Thus, the limitations of Communicative Approach may be enumerated as follows:

- It doesn't have a systematic theory. A systematic theory for this approach needs to be developed.
- As it is a new approach, its implementation requires highly qualified and well-trained teachers, unfortunately, they are not always available, particularly, in foreign language contexts.
- The teacher must not only be competent in using this approach, but also fluent in the target language. Such teachers are limited in number, particularly, in foreign language contexts.
- It cannot be used in large or very large class which is the case in most target language learning contexts, particularly, in foreign language contexts.
- Sometimes the class becomes too communicative to such extent that it creates disturbance for others and neglects purposeful concentration on the teaching point.
- The Communicative Approach neglects teaching of the grammar and structure of the target language though they are very important, particularly, in foreign language contexts.

The Natural Approach

Introduction

All teaching approaches, methods and techniques aimed to appeal to the working of the mind of the teacher and learner by means of effective pedagogies so that teaching may be done efficiently and learning may take place effectively and quickly. As Stern, H. H. (1992), observed, “One of the main features of the development of language pedagogy has been the continuous attempt to renew language teaching through changes in teaching method.” Therefore, language pedagogies have always been trying to reform and adjust themselves according to the requirements that make teaching effective and enable the working of the learner’s mind to achieve true learning and rather acquisition of the target language. In order to do so, teaching approaches and methods and their pedagogies became more attached to the real life. They tried to benefit further from the growth of psycholinguistics, socio-linguistics and the semantics that emphasized on real-world language use that leads to language acquisition. They started addressing the individual learner who acquired his mother tongue and has the potentiality to learn more languages. In fact, researches on language teaching/learning, in 1970s, recognized the importance of the individual’s

construction of language taking into consideration the learner's potentialities, motivation and initiativeness; the factors that enable the learner to acquire/learn languages. Moreover, the shift of paradigm from behaviorist to constructivist was made and it recognized the learners' ability to construct language which is appropriate to various communicative situations. Constructivist language pedagogy is primarily inspired by the findings of Bruner, J. (1966a/b), and Vygotsky, L. (1978), which claim that the working of the mind has central importance in the process of education. Thus, the working of the mind has been the focus of constructivist thought. Bruner, J. (1966b), highlights the constructive power of the mind by saying, "Constructivism is nowhere more compelling than in the psychology of art and creativity. Blake, Kafka, Wittgenstein, and Picasso did not find the worlds they produced, they invented them."

Thus, Constructivism presented a radically different view about the process of education in general and language classrooms in particular. It views education as a meaning-making process and focuses on the construction of knowledge and language by learners naturally. Hence, constructivism has inspired pedagogic practitioners in the field of language teaching/learning and its ideas were taken up by many scholars to go deep into language teaching methodologies and practices. The language pedagogies moved to make language learning as natural as it may be possible. From such trends the

Natural Approach (NA) emerged.

Theoretical Bases of the NA

A new philosophy of learning was proposed by Tracy, Terrell; a teacher of Spanish in California. Tracy, Terrell (1977), outlined a proposal for 'new' philosophy of language teaching which he called the 'Natural Approach.' This approach grew out of his experiences and observations during conducting his classes. It incorporated the 'naturalistic' principles researchers had identified in studies of second language acquisition. He called it the 'Natural Method.'

This approach gained credence and influenced the teaching circles due to the support given by a linguist called Krashen, S. D. In fact, the work of Krashen and his distinction between 'acquisition' and 'learning' provided a theoretical basis to give a place to new vision about communication in second language learning. The Natural Approach is based on a learning theory that specifies both processes and conditions ingrained in language acquisition. In other words, it is based on the hotly debated theories of language acquisition propounded by Krashen, S. D. who believes that language acquisition takes place only in a natural environment where spontaneous conversation occurs and the message of the language is clear. As far as the clarity of message is concerned, it occupied an important place in the ideas produced by Tracy, Terrell and Stephen, Krashen.

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), state that “acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language.” Tracy, Terrell joined Stephen, Krashen and produced, together, a combined statement of the principles and practices of the Natural Approach.

According to Krashen, S. D. formal classroom instruction contributes little to language acquisition. He realized the importance of the role of input in facilitating language acquisition. Krashen, S. D. believes in the learner being provided ‘comprehensible input’ and he assumes that the learners’ production would be delayed until speech emerges, therefore, there should be a relaxed atmosphere in the classroom and a great deal of oral communication as opposed to the analysis of grammatical rules. Thus, Krashen, S. D. (1981), considers ‘comprehensible input’ and ‘reduction of stress’ in the learning environment as keys to successful language learning. He regards also performing physical actions in the target language as an effective means of making input comprehensible and minimizing stress.

Since the emergence of Krashen’s researches and findings, second language acquisition and second language learning are seen as entirely different. Language acquisition and language learning are considered as entirely separate process and therefore they are treated with different pedagogic orientations. According to Krashen, S. D. (1981), “Language acquisition is very

similar to the process children use in acquiring first and second languages. It requires meaningful interaction in the target language natural communication in which speakers are not concerned with the form of their utterances but with the messages they are conveying and understanding.” The Natural Approach was itself based on language acquisition theories, which were tested and proved through a series of scientific studies. As Krashen, S. D. himself claimed it was based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition. He enriched second language acquisition research by his findings which influenced linguists and pedagogic practitioners. Hence, Krashen’s theories of second language acquisition served as its theoretical base.

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), developed the Natural Approach at the end of 1970s. It appeared in their book titled ‘The Natural Approach’, which was published in 1983. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), “Krashen and Terrell’s book contains theoretical sections prepared by Krashen that outlines his views on second language acquisition, and sections on implementation and classroom procedures, prepared largely by Terrell.” Theorizing about the Natural Approach, Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), say, “The Natural Approach is consistent with the implications of the theory of second language acquisition.”

Thus, Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), theorized about the ‘Natural Approach’. They made a

continuing reference to the theoretical and research base which claimed to underlie the Natural Approach and to the fact that the method is unique in having such a base. Natural Approach, according to Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), “is based on an empirically grounded theory of second language acquisition, which has been supported by a large number of scientific studies in a wide variety of language acquisition and learning contexts.”

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), have identified the Natural Approach with what they call ‘traditional’ approaches to language teaching. Traditional Approaches are defined by Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), as “based on the use of language in communicative situations without recourse to the native language” and, perhaps, without reference to grammatical analysis, grammatical drilling or to a particular theory of grammar. Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), note that such “approaches have been called natural, psychological, phonetic, new, reform, direct, analytic, imitative and so forth.” It means that in the process of learning the target language, the Natural Approach claim that there is no need to deal directly with the grammar of the target language. In this regard, Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), say if input is provided “over a wider variety of topics while pursuing communicative goals, the necessary grammatical structures are automatically provided in the input.” Their major concern was to enable

the learner to communicate naturally in the target language without opting to study its grammar directly. Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), say, "...acquiring a language is 'picking it up', i.e., developing ability in language by using it in natural, communicative situations."

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), stated that the theory of the Natural Approach consists of "(1) comprehension precedes production; (2) production must be allowed to emerge in (variable) stages; (3) the course syllabus must be based on communicative goals; and (4) the activities and classroom environment must work together to produce a lowered 'affective filter.'"

Krashen, S. D. (1982), presents five hypotheses in second language acquisition. They sum up the NA's main tenets. They are as follows:

1. The Acquisition or Learning Hypothesis
2. The Monitor Hypothesis
3. The Natural Order Hypothesis
4. The Input Hypothesis
5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis.

1. The Acquisition or Learning Hypothesis

The Acquisition/Learning Hypothesis claims that there are two ways of developing competence in a second/foreign language; namely, acquisition and learning. In other words, an important part of this hypothesis is that the two systems are separate. It sees

acquisition and learning as two distinct ways of developing competence in a language and makes a distinction between them. On the one hand, Acquisition is the 'natural' way that parallels the process of the first language development in children. It is the natural way for a child to build its language competence as it takes place naturally without the learner being consciously aware of it. It means that it is an unconscious process. In the process of acquisition, the acquirer is gaining implicit knowledge about the language and is working unconsciously with the language. It enables the child to develop language proficiency through being involved in its use for communication. Thus, acquisition refers to an unconscious and natural process of the acquirement of language proficiency through understanding the language and using it for meaningful communication.

Learning, on the other hand, refers to a process in which conscious rules about the target language are developed through formal teaching. Learning, according to this hypothesis cannot lead to acquisition. It is a conscious process that relies on gaining the mastery of rules and structures of the target language. It results in explicit knowledge about the forms of a language and the ability to verbalize that knowledge and perform communication. In the process of learning, the learner is gaining explicit knowledge about the language and is working consciously with the language. Thus, formal teaching is necessary for the development of 'learning'

and correction of learners' errors helps with the development of learned rules. In other words, what this hypothesis mainly emphasizes is that consciously gained knowledge of rules (that is, learnt knowledge) does not become acquisition. It also does not have the same value or potentiality for use as acquired competence.

2. The Monitor Hypothesis

Natural Approach's second hypothesis moves forward from the first. With its belief that the source of a speaker's utterances is the acquired system of the language (that is, what is not learnt consciously), it claims that whatever is consciously learned or learnt knowledge is not very useful. It can only serve one purpose, which is to help monitor (or correct) what is expressed. In other words, learning is just a monitor or an editor. Its function is to edit the acquired knowledge when the learner is producing the target language. The learnt knowledge is only useful in very restricted exercises when there is time to retrieve it and build feedback from it. Thus, learning, (as opposed to acquisition), has only a minor corrective role. In practice even that role is restricted by, among other things, three conditions that limit the successful use of the monitor:

- a. Time: By time, it is meant that there must be sufficient time for a learner to choose and apply a learned rule.

- b. Focus on form: By Focus on form, it is meant that the language user must be focused on the correctness or on the form of the output.
- c. Knowledge of rules: By Knowledge of rules, it is meant that the performer must know the rules of the language. The monitor does best with rules that are simple in two ways. They should be simple to describe and they should not require complex movements and rearrangements.

3. The Natural Order Hypothesis

The Natural Order Hypothesis claims that learners follow sequences in their acquisition of specific forms of the language; a phenomenon already noticed both in L1 and L2 researches. This order is said to be true of both first acquisition and second language learning. The natural-order hypothesis lies in the understanding that the acquisition of grammar (both morphology and syntax) follows a predictable order within a process of natural development. An important corollary to this is that the errors that learners commit form part of this process of organic development and should, therefore, be welcomed and seen as natural stages in the development of communicative competence in the target language.

4. The Input Hypothesis

Natural Approach's fourth hypothesis focuses on the input. Krashen, S. D. (1985), summarizes

the input hypothesis by saying: “We acquire language in an amazingly simple way – when we understand messages. We have tried everything else – learning grammar rules, memorizing vocabulary, using expensive machinery, forms of group therapy etc. What has escaped us all these years, however, is the one essential ingredient: comprehensible input.” It is embodied in the belief that language is best acquired by the learner’s getting exposed to a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input of the target language. In the Input Hypothesis, Krashen, S. D. (1985), postulates that language is acquired in “only one way”, that is, “by understanding messages, or by receiving ‘comprehensible input.’” The Input Hypothesis claims to explain the relationship between what the learner is exposed to of a language (the input) and the process of language acquisition. It states that humans acquire language only by receiving comprehensible input. For this to happen, language must be slightly above the level of the learner to make the optimal learning environment, i.e., $i+1$. It involves four main issues: First, the hypothesis relates to acquisition and not to learning. In other words, the input should be not just rich, but such that, at any particular time, it is slightly beyond the current level of the acquirer’s competence so that the acquirer can perceive what is not known to him and proceed in the process of acquisition by knowing it. Second, people acquire language best by understanding input that is slightly beyond their current level of

competence: Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), put it: “An acquirer can move from stage i (where i is the acquirer’s level of competence) to a stage $i+1$ (where $i + 1$ is the stage immediately following i along some natural order) by understanding language containing $i + 1$.” Third, the ability to speak fluently cannot be taught directly; rather, it ‘emerges’ independently in time, after the acquirer has built up linguistic competence by understanding the input. Fourth, if there is a sufficient quantity of comprehensible input, $i + 1$ will usually be provided automatically.

Thus, the Natural Approach views language learning, as do Audiolingualists, as mastery of structures by stages. According to Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), “The input hypothesis states that in order for acquirers to progress to the next stage in the acquisition of the target language, they need to understand input language that includes a structure that is part of the next stage.” The Natural Approach refers to this with the formula ‘ $i + 1$ ’ (i.e., input that contains structures slightly above the learner’s present level).

5. The Affective Filter Hypothesis

The final hypothesis is mainly about the learner’s inner state. It states that learners with a low affective filter acquire language better as they are able to receive more of the language, interact with it with greater confidence and thus have a higher degree of receptivity to

the input. To be receptive for the input leading to language acquisition it is important that the learner is relaxed and comfortable. In other words, a low-stress environment is thus a potentially richer source of language acquisition. It wanted to say that the learners who are in a stressful learning environment where they are forced to produce language before they are ready, will have high affective filter and the processing of input will be blocked.

The NA and the Comprehensible Input

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), say, "...language acquisition occurs in only one way: by understanding messages. We acquire language when we obtain comprehensible input, when we understand what we hear or read in another language. This means that acquisition is based primarily on what we hear and understand, not what we say."

The emphasis of Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), on the role of meaningful and comprehensible input has been a radical one as it influenced pedagogic practices as well. Thus, the comprehensibility of the input is a vital factor in facilitating the acquisition of language by learners of all ages. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), "Krashen and Terrell see communication as the primary function of language, and since their approach focuses on teaching communicative abilities, they refer to the Natural Approach as an example of a communicative approach." The Natural Approach,

according to Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), “is similar to other communicative approaches being developed today.” They reject earlier methods of language teaching, such as the Audiolingual Method which considered grammar as the central component of language. According to Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), the major problem with these methods was that they were built not around “actual theories of language acquisition, but theories of something else; for example, the structure of language.”

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), assume that when the input that is given to the learners is above their level of understanding it cannot in anyway contribute to acquisition. Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), state, “According to research in second language acquisition, it is thought that acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language. Incomprehensible input (e.g. listening to an unknown language on the radio) does not seem to help language acquisition. We acquire when we focus on what is being said, rather than how it is said. We acquire when language is used for communicating real ideas.”

Assumptions and Principles of the NA

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), consider communication as the primary function of a language. According to them second-language acquisition is analogous to the way in which a child would

acquire its mother tongue. Thus, language is viewed as a vehicle of communicating meanings and messages. According to Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), “Acquisition can take place only when people understand messages in the target language.” Since their approach focuses on teaching communicative skills and makes the learner in language-acquisition-like situation, they consider the Natural Approach as the best means of achieving communicative skills.

Thus, the underlying principles of the Natural Approach are that there should be a lot of language ‘acquisition’ as opposed to ‘language processing’. The Natural Approach gave priority to ‘language acquisition’ which is quite different from ‘language processing’. The proponents of the Natural Approach believe that a lot of language ‘acquisition’ can be done through a considerable amount of ‘comprehensible input’ from the teacher.

According to Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), the Natural Approach can be broken down into three principles:

1. The Natural Approach emphasizes on the message of the language and what the language communicates rather than the form of the language.
2. Oral production can’t be forced to come out, but rather it comes out as the learner reaches a sufficient level of comprehension in the language being learnt.
3. Speech comes after going through natural stages.

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), stated that language learners go through three stages:

1. Comprehension Stage.
2. Early Speech Stage.
3. Speech Emergence Stage.

Features of the NA

In the Natural Approach, meaning is considered as the essence of language and vocabulary (not grammar) as the heart of language. Thus, vocabulary is highly focused on, suggesting that a language is essentially its lexicon and only inconsequently the grammar. Grammar and rule learning are relegated to the margin so as to make language learning situations avoid the mechanical side of the language that would never develop language production skill of the learner. According to Krashen, S. D. (1982), “we acquire by going for meaning first and as a result we acquire structures” Therefore, meaning-making processes are facilitated in the classroom procedures to enable the learners to construct meanings as best as they can. The learner’s mistakes are not corrected so as to enable him to use the language without fear of making errors. Thus, the emphasis given to meaning-making processes and the tolerance of errors indicate its constructivist leanings.

The Natural Approach is correctly described by Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), as follows: “.....believed to conform to the naturalistic principles

found in second language acquisition. Unlike the direct method, however, it places less emphasis on teacher monologues, direct repetition, and formal questions and answers, and less focus on accurate production of target language sentences.”

Thus, the concept of the Natural Approach indicates that languages can be learned effectively without formal study of structure, rule and form. In fact, Natural Approach’s greatest claim to originality lies not in the techniques it employs, but in its emphasis more on comprehensible and meaningful practice activities in the target language than on the production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences in the target language. Thus, it considered form-focused activities as having minimal benefit to the learner, since conscious ‘learning’ can’t be converted into the central process of unconscious ‘acquisition’ which is responsible for all real comprehension and production of language. The Natural Approach attempts to assimilate the process of mother tongue acquisition. Strangely enough, in the Natural Approach, learners are given the freedom to use the mother tongue along with the target language and this makes it different from Direct Method.

Objectives of the NA

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), approach course organization from two points of view. First, they list some typical goals for language courses

and suggest which of these goals are the ones at which the Natural Approach aims. They list such goals under four areas:

1. Basic personal communication skills: oral (e.g., listening to announcements in public places).
2. Basic personal communication skills: written (e.g., reading and writing personal letters).
3. Academic learning skills: oral (e.g., listening to a lecture).
4. Academic learning skills: written (e.g., taking notes in class).

Brown, H. D. (1987), says, “There are a number of possible long-range goals of language instruction. In some cases, second languages are learned for oral communication, in other cases for written communication, and in still others there may be an academic emphasis on, say listening to lectures, speaking in a classroom context, or writing a research paper. The Natural Approach is aimed at the goals of basic personal communication skills, that is, everyday language situations- conversation, shopping, listening to the radio and the like.” Thus, the goal of the Natural Approach is the development of oral and written skills which are considered as basic skills for communication and academic learning. Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), claim that the Natural Approach is primarily “designed to develop basic communication skills - both oral and written.” Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D.

(1983), observe that communication goals “may be expressed in terms of situations, functions and topics.” Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), proceed to order four pages of topics and situations “which are likely to be most useful to beginning students.”

According to Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), “The goals of a Natural Approach class are based on an assessment of student needs. We determine the situations in which they will use the target language and the sorts of topics they will have to communicate information about. In setting communication goals, we do not expect the students at the end of a particular course to have acquired a certain group of structures or forms. Instead, we expect them to deal with a particular set of topics in a given situation. We do not organize the activities of the class about a grammatical syllabus.”

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), state, “it is the teacher in the classroom who draws from the method, combining many strategies for a particular situation... Its ultimate goal is to enable students to move with relative ease from comprehension to early production and eventually into speech emergence and beyond.”

Material of the NA

Although syllabus designers in modern approaches which advocate language acquisition and emphasize on meaning, communication, aims, objectives,

relevance and the significance of a language syllabus in the broader curriculum, however, S. D. Krashen's theory of the 'Natural Approach' seems to view the syllabus as irrelevant. Yalden, J. (1983), discusses S. D. Krashen's attitude to syllabus by saying, "he seemed to take for granted that since there is a natural process of second language acquisition-or a natural syllabus that will in any case emerge there is no need to design an artificial progression for the learner."

Techniques and Procedures of the NA

Krashen, S. D. suggests that active interaction in the language should be the major activity in the classroom. Since children learn naturally to speak before they read, in the Natural Approach oral practice precedes reading. Therefore, the proponents of the Natural Approach even tended to avoid the use of books in classroom. Krashen, S. D. is concerned about the 'acquisition' and the 'intake' rather than the 'input'. Since a syllabus; the in-put, can only specify what is to be taught in a language course and not what is to be learnt, then, the 'intake' does not have a syllabus that can be created by a linguist or by a teacher. Krashen, S. D. (1981), says, "the major function of the second language classroom is to provide intake for acquisition."

Since the selection, reproduction, and collection of materials places a considerable burden on the Natural Approach teacher, Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D.

(1983), suggest to introduce a syllabus of topics and situations. The syllabus of topics and situations serve three generic stages identified in the approach: (1) Preproduction; its aim is to develop listening skills; (2) Early Production; it makes the learners struggle with the language and commit many errors which are corrected on the bases of content and not structure; (3) Extending Production; its aim to promote fluency through a variety of more challenging activities and contents.

The Natural Approach, according to Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), “is for beginners and is designed to help them become intermediates.” They go on to say that “the purpose of a language course will vary according to the needs of the students and their particular interests.” As part of the Natural Approach, learners listen to the teacher using the target language communicatively from the very beginning. In other words, the Natural Approach presents ‘comprehensible input’ to the learner in the target language.

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), have suggested that the ‘natural approach’ which converts the classroom into a place for maximum meaningful exposure to the target language would result in effective and natural language acquisition. Therefore, the primary goal of materials in the Natural Approach is to make classroom activities as meaningful as possible by supplying, as Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), puts it, “the extra-linguistic context that helps the acquirer

to understand and thereby to acquire.” Games, in general, are seen as useful classroom materials, since, according to Terrell, T. D. (1982), “games by their very nature, focus the student on what it is they are doing and use the language as a tool for reaching the goal rather than as a goal in itself.”

The Natural Approach does not teach the formal rules of the target language. Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), advocated ‘natural language learning’ and the activities like problem-solving tasks, games and puzzles, etc to engage the learners’ attention on the meaning of the utterance and not on the form of utterance. Learners were exposed to sequences of activities and actions and the spoken form of the language was taught before the written form. Krashen, S. D. considers that formal learning of rules and their practice are of little value in the process of attempting to undergo a natural process of learning the target language. According to S. D. Krashen’s monitor model, form-focused activities are of minimum benefit to the learner because ‘conscious learning’ cannot be converted into the central process of unconscious ‘acquisition’, responsible for all genuine comprehension and production of language. Therefore, rules of the grammar are not taught to the learners. Instead, the classroom sessions consist of ample input in the form of comprehension material and the learners are involved in the activity of the spoken language. They understand what is being taught to them and they are encouraged to

formulate their own generalizations about the rule of use. Thus, the Natural Approach emphasizes on comprehensible and meaningful input rather than on grammatically correct production or translation. In fact, translation and grammar were rejected and this makes it different from Direct Method. The study of formal grammar is limited only to homework and written exercises.

As far as vocabulary is concerned, the Natural Approach gave some emphasis on vocabulary. It considered vocabulary as a bearer of meaning of the language. It considers it to be very essential in the process of learning the target language. It proposed various teaching techniques such as using cognates and demonstration for facilitating vocabulary learning, ingrainning them in the memory and consolidating the ability of the learner to recall them whenever the context needs them. It stressed on the motivational benefits of an early stage of growth of receptive vocabulary that is developed through the comprehensible input provided by the teacher. In the Natural Approach, mastering knowledge of vocabulary, according to Carter, R. and McCarthy, M. (1988), is encouraged by 'comprehensible input.' The beginner associates certain language situations with their objects. He, then, establishes certain combinations between utterances and their meaning. Finally, he reaches the stage of reproducing the words, phrases and sentences of the target language as per the

arising situation and context. Thus, the importance of the vocabulary is stressed, for example, suggesting the view that a language is essentially its lexicon and only inconsequently the grammar that determines how the lexicon is exploited to produce messages. Terrell, T. D. (1977), quotes Bolinger, Dwight (1968), to support this view: "The quantity of information in the lexicon far outweighs that in any other part of the language, and if there is anything to the notion of redundancy it should be easier to reconstruct a message containing just words than one containing just the syntactic relations. The significant fact is the subordinate role of grammar. The most important thing is to get the words in."

In Short, the teacher supplies the learners with comprehensible input by maintaining a continuous flow of speech which is closely related to the classroom environment by focusing on objects in the classroom and on the content of teaching material that avoids teaching the grammar of the target language. The activities concentrate only on topics of personal interest to the learners. The teacher talks slowly and clearly. He asks questions and elicits answers from learners. Speech is allowed to emerge naturally instead of being forced by the teacher.

It can be said that in the Natural Approach, the teacher has three central roles. They are as follows:

- Firstly, the teacher is considered to be the main source of 'comprehensible input' in the target language.

- Secondly, the teacher creates a classroom context that is conducive, active, interesting, friendly and where there is a low affective filter for learning.
- Thirdly, the teacher chooses and orchestrates a rich mix of classroom activities and involves the learners in the process of learning through a variety of group sizes, content, and contexts.

In early stages, the teacher focuses on meaning rather than form. Therefore, learners' errors are neglected and even not corrected during oral production unless the error is so grave that its neglect may hinder meaning of the language or the whole learning process. In other words, errors are not corrected unless communication is seriously affected by their occurrence.

Thus, learners are challenged by the 'comprehensible input' which may be slightly beyond their competence, but the teacher facilitates, simplifies and explains the matter by assigning meaning to the 'input' by means of active use of the language in context and using extra-linguistic information. Thus, the teacher's task is to provide comprehensible input and at the same time act as a counsellor and guide. The learners get actively involved and participate in the communication activities with the teacher and with other learners as well.

The NA vis-a-vis Methods and Approaches

It is clear that there is nothing novel about the teaching procedures and techniques advocated by the

Natural Approach. In fact, the Natural Approach belongs to a tradition of language teaching methods based on observation and interpretation of how learners acquire second language in non-formal settings. Therefore, techniques recommended by Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), are often borrowed from other methods and adapted to meet the requirements of Natural Approach theory. The Natural Approach seems to have accommodated the findings of Direct Method, Suggestopedia, the Silent Way, Communicative Language Teaching, Total Physical Response method, etc. For example, the Natural Approach neared constructivism as never before. Therefore, traces of constructivism are found in Krashen's views about the Natural Approach. As in constructivist practices, in the Natural Approach also learners should be provided with a lot of comprehensible input by the teacher to make learners acquainted with language he is learning. In other words, the Natural Approach proponents believe that the comprehensible input that is given to the learners in a natural and realistic manner play a crucial role in facilitating the process of constructing the language in their minds and accelerating the process of language learning.

The Natural Approach is an extension of the Direct Method. Direct Method activities in which mime, gesture and context are used to elicit questions and answers. Command-based activities from Total Physical Response

and even situation-based practice of structures and patterns. In fact, the term 'Natural Method' was first used in the nineteenth century to describe teaching methods, such as the Direct Method that attempted to mirror the processes of learning a first language. Therefore, the Natural Approach has certain similarities with the Direct (Natural) Method, with an important exception that in Natural Approach learners are allowed to use their mother tongue alongside the target language and as part of the whole language learning process whereas the Direct (Natural) Method came into existence as a revolt against such practices which were dominating GTM. As the authors of the Natural Approach relate it to the Natural Method, it was assumed that Natural Approach and Natural Method are synonymous terms. In fact, the Natural Method is another term for what was known as Direct Method. However, the term 'Natural' used with reference to the Direct Method points to the principles of naturalistic language acquiring in infants. Whereas Natural Approach points to the naturalistic principles found in successful second/foreign language learning. Unlike the Direct (Natural) Method, the Natural Approach places less emphasis on teacher monologues, direct repetition and formal questions and answers. In the Natural Approach, there is less emphasis on accurate production of target language sentences.

Moreover, group-work activities adopted by the Natural Approach are identical to those activities which

were used later on in Communicative Language Teaching where sharing information in order to complete a communicative task is emphasized. The communicative activities such as games, role-plays, dialogs, group work and discussions, etc. dominate the teaching/learning context. Unlike the proponents of Communicative Language Teaching, however, Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. give little attention to a theory of language.

The Natural Approach emphasizes on exposure and 'input' rather than practice. It prepares the learner for learning and provides him with a long period of attention to 'comprehension' material so as to make the learner hear before he produces the language. Thus, the emphasis of the Natural Approach on the importance of comprehension links it to other 'comprehension-based' approaches such as the Total Physical Response. In fact, the Natural Approach came in as a sequel to the Total Physical Response method language pedagogy. It shared a lot in common with Asher's Total Physical Response method by advocating the need for a 'silent phase'; waiting for spoken production to 'emerge' of its own accord after getting exposed to a lot of comprehensible input. Like Suggestopedia, the Natural Approach also emphasized the need to make learners as relaxed as it may be possible during the learning process. It demanded that the learning process should be rid of any tension and stress and the learner should be provided with a relaxed atmosphere that is conducive to the process of inhaling

the vast comprehensible input. It is important that teachers examine the atmosphere of the classroom environment and put it in the optimum condition by urging the learners to get engaged in learning activities. Terrell, T. D. (1982), says, “A low anxiety situation can be created by involving the student personally in class activities.”

Merits of the NA

According to Sricharoen, A. (2005), the use of the Natural Approach activity can develop English listening and speaking abilities as well as word recognition of preparatory level learners. In fact, Natural Approach, if well manipulated, has the capacity to put a tangible foundation of comprehension skill that makes the learner possess a useful potentiality of internalized language. Thus, the Natural Approach is good for the beginning level of the learners of the target language. According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), there are many educators who have personally seen learners succeed in learning languages with the use of the NA.

Demerits of the NA

According to Wright, W. E. (2015), “Natural Approach, like Krashen’s theories on which the approach is based, has been highly criticized for lacking a clear focus, providing too little guidance for teachers, and

leaving too much to chance in terms of students' learning needed vocabulary and grammatical forms." Kulkarni, A. D. (1972), stated that the Natural Approach "of learning by trial and error has no place today as human beings cannot afford to waste time in experimenting." Moreover, Krashen, S. D. (1982), himself laments that the "only weakness" of the NA "is that it remains a classroom method, and for some students this prohibits the communication of interesting and relevant topics."

S. D. Krashen's theories and the Natural Approach faced criticism, particularly, on the recommendation of a silent period that is terminated when learners feel ready to emerge into oral production and the idea of comprehensible input. However, the emergence of the learners is unpredictable because different learners may emerge at different times depending on their capabilities to benefit from their exposition to the vast comprehensible input. There may even be cases wherein some learners may never emerge into the stage of producing the target language at all. Moreover, the idea of comprehensible input is vague, unclear and indefinable as what is comprehensible to some learners may be incomprehensible to other learners. These factors may create a classroom that is difficult to be managed by the ordinary teacher unless the teacher is highly qualified and professionally skilled.

The fundamental objection to the Natural Approach according to Sweet, H. (1899), was that it puts

the adult in the position of an infant, which he is no longer capable of utilizing the advantages of that stage and at the same time it does not allow him to make use of his own special emerging advantages; that is the power of analysis and generalization that appears with the stage of adulthood; namely, the power of using grammar and dictionary and deciphering the suitable meaning according to context, etc.

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), claim that the Natural Approach is an example of a Communicative Approach. However, unlike proponents of Communicative Language Teaching, Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. give little attention to a theory of language. Gregg, K. R. (1984), a recent critic of Krashen, S. D. suggests that the Natural Approach has no theory of language at all.

T. D. Terrell's aim of attaining fluency at the cost of achieving accuracy encourages development of bad language habits which are not easily eradicated in future because once a low level of inter language is used repeatedly, it 'fossilizes' and damages the quality of language produced in the course of attempting to communicate. That fossilization cripples the learners and hampers their proper development in the target language. The only protection against such a fossilization is to search for an approach which, right from the beginning, guides the learner systematically through a training program that focuses on linguistic correctness along with

language production.

Allen, J. P. B. (John Patrick Brierley), (1983), points out a discrepancy in Krashen's and Terrell's Natural Approach. He claims that a close reading of Krashen and Terrell shows that it is difficult to avoid conscious learning. Allen, J. P. B. (1983), says that Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. admit paying attention to conscious learning in their teaching by confessing that 20% of consciousness-raising time should be devoted to 'learning' activities.

The above comments are sufficient to show the limitation of the Natural Approach. Though the Natural Approach might be good for the beginning level of the learners or for those who need only an oral proficiency in the target language, it does not cater to other needs of all language learners. It might be difficult to depend on the Natural Approach in foreign language teaching context because learning a foreign language is not always an easy and enjoyable experience. The learners have to face many problems because learning a foreign language is, as rightly put by Kohli, A. L. (1970), "...an artificial process. It is not the same as the natural process by which a child learns its mother tongue."

However, these and other criticisms of the Natural Approach can be ignored to an extent as this was the first attempt at creating an expansive and overall 'approach' rather than just a specific 'method'. Krashen, S. D. defends his approach and gives the principal tenets of the

theory ingrained in it, since it is on these principal tenets of the theory that the design of material and procedure of teaching in Natural Approach are based. He tries to convince the practitioners that like Communicative Language Teaching, the Natural Approach is also evolutionary rather than revolutionary in its procedures. Its greatest claim to originality lies not in the techniques and procedures it employs, but in their use in a method that emphasizes comprehensible and meaningful practice activities rather than just production of grammatically perfect utterances and sentences.

Content-based Approach

Background

Content-based Approach (CbA) is not a new phenomenon in the field of language teaching. It was associated with the origin of immersion teaching of language which dominated the educational activities in many places all over the world during the 20th. century when English was the language which played a major role in this regard. However, English is not a content-based subject; it is a skill-based subject. It is not about any particular subject; it is about practicing something; namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing, nevertheless, for decades or more English has been taught as a content-based subject through subjects like mathematics or science, geography, etc.

Content-based instruction has become increasingly popular in recent years. According to Swain, M. and Johnson, R. K. (1997), “until the rise of nationalism, few languages other than those of the great empires, religions and civilizations were considered competent or worthy to carry the content of a formal curriculum.” In the 1970s, there was the ‘language across curriculum’ movement in England. It was believed that Content-based Approach integrated language learning with the learning of subject-content. While practicing

listening, speaking, reading and writing, learners speak, read and write about something that may be Geography, History, etc.

Definition of CbA

Krahnke, K. (1987), defines Content-based Approach as follows: “It is the teaching of content or information in the language being learned with little or no direct or explicit effort to teach the language itself separately from the content being taught.” According to Crandall, J. and Tucker, G. R. (1990), Content-based Instruction is “... an approach to language instruction that integrates the presentation of topics or tasks from subject matter classes (e.g., math, social studies) within the context of teaching a second language.” Curtain, H. A. and Pesola, C. A. (1994), consider Content-based Instruction as “... curriculum concepts being taught through the foreign language ... appropriate to the grade level of the students...” According to Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), Content-based Instruction is “an approach to second language teaching in which teaching is organized around the content or information that the students will acquire, rather than around a linguistic or other type of syllabus.” Brinton, D. M., et al. (2006), define Content-based Instruction as “the integration of particular content with language teaching aims, or as the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills.” According to Stryker, B. S. and

Leaver, B. L. (1997), Content-based Language Instruction “is a truly and holistic approach to foreign language education ... (which) can be at once a philosophical orientation, a methodological system, a syllabus design for a single course, or a framework for an entire program of instruction.” According to Eskey, D. E. (1997), “for every piece of content recognized, there is a discourse community which somehow provides us with the means to analyze, talk about, and write about that content.”

Assumptions and Principles of CbA

The underlying assumption of Content-based Approach is that language classroom can allow learners to achieve goals of language proficiency and content mastery simultaneously. The Content-based Approach believes that language is more a vehicle for communication and a container of knowledge rather than just a subject in its own right. It believes that the best way to learn new words is to learn them in proper contexts. Therefore, language and content were both used to perform different communicative tasks in the classroom. According to Brinton, D. M., et al. (2006), Content-based Instruction “...view the target language largely as the vehicle through which the subject matter content is learned rather than as the immediate subject of study.” In other words, in the language class where courses based on Content-based Approach are followed, learners have a

chance to develop and foster language skills through the presentation of subject-matter and vice versa.

In Content-Based Instruction, the target language is not the immediate object of study, but it is the medium to convey informational content of interest and relevance to the learner's educational activities and interest. It means that, this method believes that language is not taught for communication, but rather used to learn a particular subject and thus communication is not limited to conversation only. The circumstances depend on the main focus of teaching through Content-based Instruction in association with the course goals. According to Wesche, M. B. (1993), Content-based Instruction is aimed at "the development of use-oriented second and foreign language skill" and is "distinguished by the concurrent learning of a specific content and related language use skills." It means that in Content-based Instruction, the language used was context and content-based which is in the form of analyzing, classifying, interpreting, reporting and so on. Thus, for Content-based Approaches, communication is not central to the teaching/learning activities. The focus is solely on understanding the subject being studied.

Grabe, W. and Stoller, F. L. (1997), say that Content-based Instruction has gained strong support from a range of studies in second language acquisition research, training studies (cooperative learning, meta-cognitive/learning strategy instruction and extensive

reading) and educational and cognitive psychology. In fact, Content-based Instruction advocates a holistic approach to language instruction and it has a close relation with Project Work and Task-based Learning.

As noted earlier, contemporary trends of language learning believe that language learning is associated with processes. Richards, J. C. (2006), relates those processes with the subject-matter. He says that Content-based Instruction believes that the best way to create effective language learning processes in the classroom is to use content as the driving force of the teaching processes and the classroom activities and then to link all different dimensions of communicative competence, including grammatical competence, to the content of the subject being studied in order to make the learning outcome not only in the form of learning the subject-matter, but also mastering the language; the medium of instruction, itself.

It is clear that the content of Content-based Approach aimed to develop the practice of four language skills through the content of various courses meant for other subjects or specializations. Thus, Content-based Approach broke away from conventional classroom where the focus of the language instruction is mainly on linguistic mastery from a single subject of study; that is English and made the learner learn the language indirectly through the subject-matter he is studying or he is specialized in.

Material of CbA

There has been increasing attention given to Content-based Instruction due to its successful implementation in different parts of the world. The great thing about this approach was that it did not have pre-determined syllabus for the language itself. The material which is similar to that which is used in native language instruction will suit the purpose in all teaching contexts. According to Brinton, D. M., et al. (2006), Content-based Approach takes account of the learners' existing knowledge of the subject-matter and of the academic environment as well as their knowledge about target language. This contextualized Content-based Instruction language class attempts to respond to the learners' educational needs and attract their interest by integrating both content and language. Content-based Instruction, according to Snow, M. A. (2014), "...is an umbrella term for a multifaceted approach to SFL teaching that differs in terms of Factors such as educational setting, program objectives, and target population but shares a common point of departure – the integration of language teaching aims with content instruction." Brinton, D. M., et al. (2006), say that Content-based Instruction is "... the integration of particular content with language teaching aims...the concurrent teaching of academic subject matter and second language skills." Brinton, D. M., et al. (2006), go on to say that materials "that were not originally produced for language teaching purposes" such

as articles in newspapers, magazines, etc. Accordingly, this motivates the learners to learn not only the subject-matter of his interest, but also the language itself which acts as a vehicle of conveying the message. Hence, in Content-based Approach, language learning is considered incidental to the learning of content. The content of the syllabus is derived from the content area of study. According to Genesee, F. (1994), the content "... need not be academic; it can include any topic, theme or non-language issue of interest or importance to the learners."

Therefore, topics covering various subjects have been included in the educational curriculum and they have been considered important in themselves for their contents. They were developed according to the need of the educational course. The topics were in the form of special courses like English for nurses, English for engineers or English for doctors. They combined language learning and the study of individual subjects. Therefore, the focus is on the process and content and not on the grammar and structures used. According to Mohan, B. (1986), in Content-based Instruction the language is utilized as the medium for teaching the subject content of the educational course. In such a course, the learners are more concerned about the content of the course, consequently, the language syllabus emerges according to the need of the content.

Thus, it can be said that Content-based Instruction is a teaching material that is wide in details and format.

Subject-content such as history, geography, etc., is used for teaching a particular subject in English. Such a teaching is called 'Immersion Teaching' because it is not a language course for the sake of the language itself, but it is a content-course for understanding a particular educational subject. Content-based courses are a kind of language immersion program by which foreign languages used to be taught in many places all over the world. Met, M. (1991), proposes that "... 'content' in content-based programs represents material that is cognitively engaging and demanding for the learner, and is material that extends beyond the target language or target culture." In these programs the educational subjects are learnt through a second/foreign language.

According to Eskey, D. E. (1997), "... what we teach in any kind of content-based course is not the content itself but some form of the discourse of that content- not, for example, 'literature' itself (which can only be experienced) but how to analyze literature...for every body of content that we recognize as such- like the physical world or human cultural behavior- there is a discourse community-like physics or anthropology- which provides us with the means to analyze, talk about, and write about that content...thus, for teachers the problem is how to acculturate students to the relevant discourse communities, and for students the problem is how to become acculturated to those communities."

Versions of Content-based Course

There are two versions of Content-based course. The first version is 'adjunct model' in which learners join an academic and language course side by side. The teacher, in the language course, helps learners with language skills so that they can understand their academic subjects and concentrate on their contents. They do academic tasks such as term papers, assignments, etc. and through such tasks they, indirectly, grasp the target language and master it. The second version is the 'sheltered instruction'. Crandall, J. (1994), gives a summary of language-through-content approaches. According to her, when the language teacher uses content of another subject to teach the target language, 'Content-based instruction' occurs and in such a situation the teacher uses 'sheltered subject teaching' to provide a comprehensible input for the learners about the subject-matter being studied. It means that the 'sheltered instruction,' is based on the modified content materials to teach the subject-matter.

Brinton, D. M., et al. (2006), examine the combination of the three approaches to content-based language instruction; namely: The thematic instruction, the sheltered classrooms and the adjunctions. In this combination of content and language objectives, the content material dictates the form and sequence, as well, of the target language learning. All the three models attempt for language needs, include target language, build

on background knowledge and provide an opportunity for meaningful language use. The key differences between them are as follow:

- **The Thematic Instruction:** In this model, the content is presented in modules and the curriculum may be reorganized around broad concepts. Language teacher becomes the subject teacher as well. There is a rich integration of the language skills and content-tasks and many materials are teacher-created.
- **The Sheltered Instruction:** In this model, the content is presented as isolated subjects. The subject teacher becomes the language teacher as well. Speech and content materials are modified.
- **The Adjunct Instruction:** In this model, learners are enrolled simultaneously in two linked courses, one of these focuses on content and the other focuses on language.

The CbA Classroom

In linguistic and academic tasks, there are two issues: The teaching methodology/approach which must be adopted carefully and the availability of suitable language material that is capable of fulfilling the goals set to be achieved. Content- Based Instruction classroom tries to develop the cognitive abilities of the learners and prepare them for higher education by relating the language learning to subject-matter learning. Therefore, it changed the role to be played by the teacher and made

him not just a language teacher, but also a source of information and knowledge related to the subject-matter he is teaching and therefore the teacher must be able to deliver both knowledge and information to the learners and elicit the same from them. Therefore, the Content-Based Approach is a major challenge for teachers as it demands from them to employ more time, energy and efforts to prepare and implement the target teaching material. In this regard, the teacher must not only be highly qualified, but also highly motivated so as to make this Approach a success. He has to create truly learner-centered classrooms and plan, as well, the content of the lesson in such a way that makes comprehensibility as the basic concern of teaching/learning process. Therefore, some issues should be addressed in Content-based Instruction as it places certain demands on the teachers. Brinton, D. M., et al. (2006), identify the following:

- Are adequately trained instructors available to teach the selected courses?
- Will there be any incentives offered to instructors who volunteer to teach in the proposed program (e.g., salary increases, release time, small class sizes)?
- How will faculty not willing or qualified to participate in the new program be reassigned?
- How will teachers and other support staff be oriented to the mode (e.g., pre-service, in-service)?
- What is the balance of language and content teaching (i.e., focus on content teaching, focus on language

teaching, equal attention to both)?

- What are the roles of the teacher (e.g., facilitator, content-area expert, language expert)?
- What is the anticipated workload (e.g., contact hours, curriculum duties)?
- Who is responsible for selecting the teaching materials?
- Are teachers expected to develop content-specific, language teaching materials? If yes, will materials development training and guidelines be provided?
- Will alternate staffing configurations (e.g., curriculum and materials specialists' team teaching) be used?

In the Content-based Approach, the teacher focuses on the content-information that the learners need to know from the subject-matter they are studying and not so much on the linguistic contents and details of the language itself. Thus, learning the content of the subject-matter became the main aim behind the whole teaching/learning efforts whereas language syllabus remained at the background. According to Peachey, N. (2003), the focus of a lesson of a Content-based Instruction is on the topic or subject-matter. During the lesson, the learners use the target language to learn about the subject which they study. The subject could be anything that interests them from a serious science subject to a topical news, story or film. This is considered as a natural way of developing language ability in the learner. It means that in Content-based Instruction, the learners use the target language to fulfill a real purpose; namely,

learning the content of the subject. However, to study a new subject, the learners will need vocabulary and grammar to express themselves in speaking and writing the subject matter, therefore, the teacher is supposed to provide necessary and relevant vocabulary and grammatical explanations from the content itself. For Hernandez, A. (2003), Content-based Language Instruction is the assimilation of various objectives. He suggests that the thematic or interdisciplinary methods can be used in any content-based language classroom. Therefore, as part of the integration of language components in Content-based, there are contextualized uses of specific grammar structures and relevant vocabulary can also be emphasized to connect the subject-matter and language learning activities. Mohan, B. and Beckett, G. (2003), focus on the functional grammar and display how in the Content-based language classroom functional language can be targeted as an intentional objective. Bigelow, M., et al. (2006), propose 'connections model' as a curriculum framework in the Content-based classroom. Integrating linguistic concepts with Content-based instruction would include a greater variety of curricular materials to stimulate language and concept learning and least but not the last providing opportunities for the learners to assume a more active role in their learning process. Thus, the teacher's task is to select authentic content materials to facilitate his task. In fact, he becomes learner's needs analyst who searches for

authentic material and engage them to understand its content.

In the Content-based Approach classroom, learners are given the content of a subject-matter to get knowledge and information whereas learning the target language for communication comes only as a by-product of studying the Content-based material for its knowledge and information. It means that the learner has to remember the content of the lessons and reproduce them as answers and hence the whole learning process becomes content-based and memory-oriented activity that reflects not only their grasp of the subject-matter, but also their target language achievement. In other words, though the main task of the teaching is to make learners acquainted with the subject-matter, however, using the Content-based material does not mean to relegate the activity of communication to the background. As far as the teachers are concerned, they should not be just observers in the classroom. They should also help the learners to communicate in the target language. Learners, on their part, do not only concentrate on the subject-matter of the material they are learning, but also get involved in communication and interaction activities with the teacher and with each other as well. In fact, learners are greatly interested if there is genuine communication in the class about the content they are studying. This makes learning meaningful, improves cognitive aspects of learners, accelerates mutual interaction in the classroom and

develops communicative skills in the target language.

An important paper titled ‘What Are We Doing When We Talk Science?’ by Jack, Kimball (1996), describes the teaching of speaking in the academic study that is based on Content-based Learning which concentrates on science and not language. It assumes that when university level learners of English talk about science, they are in fact developing also their communicative and strategic competences. It means that they extend their communicative skill to convey meaning and message contained in their science material by employing varieties of language skills for specific purposes. In this process, forms and conventions of scientific language discourse are actually employed to create and express rhetorical structures which are useful for, both, speaking practice as well as the promotion of speaking strategies.

In Content-based Instruction, the learner needs to become autonomous so that he can come to understand his own learning process and strategy and take charge of it from the very start of learning. This is, according to Stryker, B. S. and Leaver, B. L. (1997), the ‘learning by doing’ school of pedagogy. Sometimes participation by the learners turns them into sources of further and abundant content. This makes them highly motivated to make the best use of the content they learn and derive language from it to express themselves. Stryker, B. S. and Leaver, B. L. (1997), suggest the following essential

skills for any Content-based Instruction instructor:

1. Varying the format of classroom instruction.
2. Using group work and team-building techniques.
3. Organizing jigsaw reading arrangements.
4. Defining the background knowledge and language skills required for student success.
5. Helping students develop coping strategies.
6. Using process approaches to writing.
7. Using appropriate error correction techniques.
8. Developing and maintaining high levels of student esteem.

Merits of the CbA

The Content-based Approach combines learning of the content-subject and language skills together. This gives the learners the experience of a whole language that offers them not only knowledge, content and information, but also the language itself with all its skills. In fact, it can be said that the Content-based Approach is an improvement on the Communicative Language Teaching in the sense that it gives priority to knowledge, content and information and at the same time it uses language as a means and not just as a subject of teaching the language for its own sake. This means that Content-based Approach may be even better than Communicative Approach in enhancing learners' skill in the target language. The so-called Communicative Language Approach tends to lay emphasis on basic

interpersonal communication skills and socializing activities in different contexts. This may expose the learners to their real-world needs and requirements, but has very limited effect which lasts for a long time whereas Content-based Instruction makes the grasped language lasts as the learners have learned an educational subject through it and mastered the knowledge, content and information he studied throughout the course.

However, one of the main merits of using Context-based Approach is that it depends upon learners' significant degree of autonomy over monitoring of the learning activity and making decisions for themselves about aspects of organization and direction of the learning activity and procedures related to the understanding of the content they are learning. Therefore, it is described as 'learner-centered learning', 'participatory learning' or more commonly, 'active learning'. In fact, teaching through Content-based Instruction increases the learner's interest and enjoyment of their language lessons as they are studying the subject-matter of their interest. It enhances learners' motivation and interest to learn both the content and the language, reduces the learners' monotony, stress and anxiety and at the same time creates a positive and affective learning situation.

However, when learners join higher studies, they will definitely encounter content-learning challenges which do not depend very much on the fruits of the communicative courses that may take care, only, of

interpersonal language skills. Therefore, they will need cognitive academic language proficiency in order to achieve better grasp over the contents of their academic courses. In other words, they have to access and comprehend a wide variety of learning resources and material in the target language such as textbooks, technical manuals, academic reports/articles, journals etc which enable them to grasp the content of the course. For example, in vocational and technical courses, intensive and extensive reading of content, academic presentation and report writing skills are very important to pursue academic excellence and professional career and succeed in them. In this regard, Content-based Approach effectively fulfills the academic and professional needs of the learners and provides them with operative language skills that enable them to present themselves in writing and speaking.

Demerits of the CbA

In Content-based Approach, all learners may not reap the same level of achievement in content of the subject-matter they have been studying nor in language which was a medium of instruction and thus their academic and professional career may get badly affected and become defected. Moreover, the relative lack of opportunities for oral participation of all learners in the classroom activities or their relative inability to understand the subject-matter of their courses may also

affect some or other aspect of the language achievement of learners. Another major demerit of Content-based Instruction is that the learners are assessed only about the extent of their achievement in the subject-content and not in the extent of their achievement in language which was a medium of instruction. Therefore, a reliable feedback about the language achievement of the learner from the content course, which they have studied, can't be established. In other words, the assessment of the learners' achievement has been mainly based on only the content of the subject-matter or immersion course they have studied and not on the language achievement of the learners. Therefore, learners continue to display defects in their language achievement.

Some Content-based materials were primarily including materials such prose, poetry, etc. The themes and content of such genres may be unfamiliar to some learners and rather complicated subject-matter. They may not catch the interest and attention of all learners. It means that learners may not have sufficient language skills to cope with a wide range of English contents in the higher levels of education which are introduced to the learners through Content-based Instruction.

Task-based Approach

Introduction

The Task-based Approach (TbA) has emerged as a creative and innovative teaching approach. Christopher, Candlin and Murphy, D. F. were the strong proponents of this approach. The purpose of this approach is to provide the learners a natural setting for language interaction and use. Therefore, it can be said that it is a natural extension of the Communicative Language Teaching as it tried to make the learners and teachers concentrate on how they can achieve things with language and use it for certain purposes through tasks that activate the interaction among learners in order to foster their communicative skills. Thus, unlike Content-based Approach, TbA puts communicative activities at the heart of the process of learning, focuses on the use of authentic language, urges the learners to do considerable tasks by using the authentic and real language material and makes the learner learn the target language naturally and spontaneously.

TbA is based on the use of tasks as the core unit of planning and instruction in language teaching/learning. To realize this, it identifies and defines what real-world tasks and pedagogical tasks are and considers everyday life events and situations as real-life tasks. Thus, by

basing tasks on real-life target, tasks can be made interesting, relevant, more beneficial and intrinsically motivating for learners. Hence, the main focus of Task-based Approach is on process of learning rather than the final product of learning.

Definition of Task

Various attempts have been made to define the notion of task, consequently, there have been many definitions and meanings for the word 'task'. Tasks, according to Skehan, P, (1996a), are "realistic communicative motivators." Ellis, R. (2003), considers that tasks "involve cognitive processes such as selecting, reasoning, classifying, sequencing information, and transforming information from one form of representation to another." According to Bygate, M., et al. (2001), "A task is an activity which requires learners to use language, with emphasis on meaning, to attain an objective." Norris, J. M., et al. (1998), defines tasks "as those activities that people do in everyday life and which require language for their accomplishment." A task is defined by Nunan, D. (1989), as "an activity (or technique) where students are urged to accomplish something or solve some problem using their language. Preferably, this activity is open-ended; there is no set way to accomplish their goal." According to Prabhu, N. S. (1987), "An activity which required learners to arrive at an outcome from the given information through some process of thought, and which

allowed teachers to control and regulate that process, was considered a task.”

Definition of the TbA

Nunan, D. (1989), says, “Task based teaching and learning is teaching and learning a language by using language to accomplish open ended tasks. Learners are given a problem or objective to accomplish but are left with some freedom in approaching this problem or objective.” Thus, he defined the communicative task as follows: “The communicative task is the piece of classroom work which involved learners in comprehending, manipulating, producing or interacting in the target language while their attention is principally focused on meaning rather than form. The task should also have a sense of completeness, being able to stand alone as a communicative act in its own right.”

According to Willis, J. (1996), a task is a goal-oriented activity with a clear purpose behind it. Performing a communicative task involves creating and achieving a final communicative output that can be appreciated and valued by others. Willis, D. and Willis, J. (2001), say, “Task-Based Learning is actually a more resolutely communicative application of Communicative Language Teaching principles. It advocates the use of a syllabus based on communicatively oriented tasks rather than linguistic forms. In Task Based Learning, language forms are not prescribed in advance and so learners are

free to use any language that they can in completing the required task.” Long, M. H. (1985), who advocates TBA calls tasks-based learning as a “piece of work undertaken for one self or for others, freely or for some reward. It is non-technical and non-linguistic. It describes the things that the person in the street would say if asked what they were doing.”

Definition of Pedagogical Task

Tasks become pedagogical in nature when they are adopted in classrooms. Such a pedagogical task is defined by Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986), as “an activity or action which is carried out as the result of processing or understanding language (i.e. as a response). For example, drawing a map while listening to a tape, listening to an instruction and performing a command may be referred to as tasks. Tasks may or may not involve the production of language. A task usually requires the teacher to specify what will be regarded as successful completion of the task. The use of a variety of different kinds of tasks in language teaching is said to make language teaching more communicative... since it provides a purpose for a classroom activity which goes beyond the practice of language for its own sake.”

Ellis, R. (2003), defines pedagogical task as follows: “A task is a work plan that requires learners to process language pragmatically in order to achieve an outcome that can be evaluated in terms of whether the

correct or appropriate propositional content has been conveyed. To this end, it requires them to give primary attention to meaning and to make use of their own linguistic resources, although the design of the task may predispose them to choose particular forms. A task is intended to result in language use than bear a resemblance, direct or indirect to the way language is used in the real world. Like other language activities, a task can engage productive or receptive and oral or written skills and also various cognitive processes.”

Breen, M. P. (1987a), defines pedagogical task as “any structured language endeavour which has a particular objective, appropriate content, a specified working procedure, and arrangement of outcomes for those who undertake the task. ‘Task’ is therefore assumed to refer to a range of work plans which have the overall purposes of facilitating language learning from the simple and brief exercise type to a more complex and lengthy activities such as group problem solving or simulations and decision-making.”

More elaborate and expanded explanation of pedagogical task is given by Willis, J. (1996), as “a class room undertaking where the target language is used by the learner a communicative purpose (goal) in order to achieve an outcome’. Here the idea of meaning is summarized in one word ‘outcome’. ‘Language in a communicative task brings out an out come through the exchange of meanings.”

Thus, as Richards, J. C. (2006), says, Task-based Instruction or TbA (also known as task-based teaching) is another method of teaching that develops from a focus on classroom process that is activated through tasks. It means that TbA does not just employ the conventional teaching material. It claims that language learning will result from creating the right kind of interactional tasks in the classroom and the best way to create them is to use specially designed instructional tasks. It claims that all aspects of the language such as grammar, vocabulary, etc. can be developed and even fostered as a bi-product of engaging the learners in interactive tasks. Thus, TbA makes strong claims for the use of tasks and sees them as the primary unit to be used, both, in planning teaching material (i.e. developing a syllabus) and also in classroom teaching (i.e. engaging learners in interaction).

Aims of the TbA

TBA aims to achieve a clear outcome from the efforts of teaching/learning the target language. According to Crookes, G. (1986), 'A specified objective' is an essential feature of a task. Prabhu, N. S. (1987), whose experiment with task-based learning in Bangalore, India, is widely considered as a point of reference by later researchers in this area, says that "the aim of using communication as a pedagogic procedure would thus be to develop in the learners an internal system which was deployable, and when deployed, be capable of achieving

grammatical accuracy.” Within this framework, Prabhu’s Task-based model tried to put into practice a methodology where Krashen’s (1981), ‘affective filter’, was at the lowest level and the main focus remained on content that leads to release and activate learners’ potentiality towards communication by means of classroom interaction.

In fact, Prabhu’s disillusionment with the Structural-Oral-Situational (S-O-S) Approach led him to reject the ideas which advocate planned progression or pre-selection of material to concentrate only on grammatical or structural items. Instead, he tried to realize his objective through ‘meaning focused activity’ in which, as Prabhu, N. S. (1987), says, “learners are occupied with understanding, extending or conveying meaning, and cope with language forms as demanded by the process... Attention to language forms is thus not intentional but incidental to perceiving, expressing and organizing meaning.”

Krashen, S. D. says, “The task-based language teaching aims at communicative involvement in pedagogical tasks and second language acquisition. Language acquisition is a sub conscious process in which the conscious teaching of grammar is unnecessary.”

Prabhu, N. S., had two objectives when he developed and implemented this methodology. The first objective was to attain grammatical competence through activities and interactions. The second objective was to enable the learner to select the structures and use them in

real life situations. Thus, tasks in the classroom create a real need to communicate in a genuine interactional process which is important for the process of task completion. This supports the learner's attempts to infer the meaning of the target language contextually and strengthen the newly formed grammatical items and structures situationally.

TBA provides for more effective basis of teaching than other language teaching approaches. Therefore, many teaching circles around the world have approved Task-based Language Teaching as the foundation of language teaching. As per Nunan's, (2004), observation: "A recent study on the impact of the emergence of English as a global language on policies and practices in the Asia-Pacific region, in seven countries, shows that task-based teaching is the central principle in their English language curricula." The following quote from the Hong Kong Ministry of Education, as cited in Nunan, D. (2004), is typical of the kinds of governmental pronouncements being made with regard to Task-based Instruction which made it popular. It says, "The task-based approach aims at providing opportunities for learners to experiment with and explore both spoken and written language through learning activities that are designed to engage learners in the authentic practical and functional use of language for meaningful purposes. Learners are encouraged to activate and use whatever language they already have in the process of completing a task. The use of tasks will also

give a clear and purposeful context for the teaching and learning of grammar and other language features as well as skills.... All in all, the role of task- based learning is to stimulate a natural desire in learners to improve their language competence by challenging them to complete meaningful tasks.”

Skehan, P. (1996a), proposes three goals for Task-based Approach. They are: accuracy, complexity and fluency. Through careful structuring and the inclusion of pre-task and post-task stages in the teaching/learning process, Skehan argues that the teacher can improve not only communicative skills of the learners, but also build in them language accuracy and experimentation with the new language in new communicative situations.

Characteristics of the TbA

Nunan, D. (1991), outlines five characteristics of a Task-based Approach to language learning:

1. An emphasis on learning to communicate through interaction in the target language.
2. The introduction of authentic texts (teaching materials) into the learning situation.
3. The provision of opportunities for learners to focus not only on language, but also on the learning process itself.
4. An enhancement of the learner’s own personal experiences as important contributing elements to classroom learning.
5. An attempt to link classroom language learning with

language activation outside the classroom.

Thus, the key characteristics of a task may be enumerated as follows:

1. The learners carry out their learning activity by utilizing the available language resources for the purpose of promoting their communicative skills.
2. Language learning takes place as the learner carries out the task spontaneously, contextually and situationally.
3. A task involves a focus on the meaning of the subject-matter and its communicative potentialities so as to activate the communicative skill of the learner and foster it.
4. If the tasks involve two or more learners, it urges them to use communicative strategies and interactional skills with each other and get engaged in active communication.

Principles of the TBA

Nunan, D. (2004), provides eight principles which form the basic foundations of the instructional sequence of tasks. They are as follows:

1. Scaffolding

The teacher provides a teaching framework or material within which the learning can take place through interaction among learners. At the beginning of the learning session, learners are not expected to produce their own new and genuine language forms or communication as the teacher knows when to remove the teaching framework or material so that the learners can do it independently on their own. If the teacher removes the

framework or material earlier; before the learners are ready, the entire learning process will fail and learners would fail to develop the communicative skill or language fluency from it.

2. Task dependency

In this teaching framework, the learners first engage themselves in the receptive task and then they move on slowly towards the stage of productive task. In other words, within one lesson, one task should move on to develop further communicative tasks and these tasks are built upon the ones that have, already, been dealt with.

3. Recycling

The learners, usually, do not reach the goal of learning completely as soon as they encounter a particular item for the first time. They require some more time to develop and internalize the language by doing it in repeated exercises before they learn it properly. This recycling process allows the learners to remember and recall what they have learnt and it provides them opportunities to do particular language items after some intervals.

4. Active Learning

It is believed that learners do learn truly when they get, actively, involved in the task of learning. It is called as experiential learning where the tasks

provide them the experience of doing it. Therefore, learners should participate in various opportunities to engage themselves and get involved in a lot of learning practices and activities. These kind of learning practices and activities remove their inhibitions and, unlike traditional classrooms, learners themselves, and not the teacher, will be doing the work and performing the task.

5. Integration

If the learners do the activities and practices in an active way, that is not adequate for their learning. They should be aware of what they learnt and the language forms they are learning. They should be able to relate what they have learnt to communicative functions and their meaning. In this regard, they should be provided with key factors regarding how to integrate their items of language and how to operate them in communicative contexts.

6. Reproduction to Creation

Usually, the learners learn and produce what they are given as models in the communicative process. In a way, they will be successful in attaining the level of producing them, however, they should not stop there by simply reproducing what they have seen or heard and considering them to be sufficient for developing language fluency. They should be encouraged to create new ways to use the linguistic forms or items in new communicative contexts. They are allowed to move from

the level of mechanic reproduction to creation of their own ways in the field of language creativity and fluency.

7. Reflection

The learners should not suffice by just producing the linguistic forms on their own, but they have to go forward to assess and evaluate their learning process and achievement. They should reflect upon how they have done it and they should be given opportunity to assess and evaluate their own learning by feedback questions.

8. Copying to Creation

Learners should not only drill and practice what has been written for them, but also they should be given the opportunity to use their creativity and imagination and what they have learned to solve real world tasks.

Meaning-focused Activity in TbA

In Task-based Approach, the learner concentrates on the meaningful activities that develop true communicative skill. According to Prabhu, N. S. (1987), meaning focused activity is divided into three types. They are 'Information-gap activity, Reasoning-gap activity and Opinion-gap activity'. In Information-gap activity the learners try to transfer information from one form to another and from one person to another. On the whole it is passing on information or communication of information through encoding or decoding. It also

involves transfer of oral information to the written form or from written form to oral form. In Reasoning-gap activity the learners arrive at some new information through the process of inference, deduction, reasoning or patterns. But instead of passing the same information, this activity requires comprehending the given information and from that initial information new information has to be deducted and a certain kind of reasoning is required to connect both the information. In this activity, learners try to explain and reason out things they are doing. Prabhu, N. S. (1987), considers reasoning-gap activity as the best activity as it requires sustained interaction. In the process of the opinion-gap activity, the learners respond to a given situation. They are required to do identification and expression of their own opinions to the given context and situations. They may have understanding of facts, but after it, the learners should come out with their emotions and point of views. Here the learners' opinions, preferences and views are sought. These are open-ended. Therefore, N. S. Prabhu's approach is called 'Procedural' while Breen, M. P. and Candlin, C. N. (1980), call it 'Process Approach'. It is an approach in which learners' success is not assessed through a particular answer, but it varies from an individual to another individual.

Form-based Work in TBA

Form-based work in TBA is presented as skills which are known as 'enabling skills.' As the name

indicates, the ‘enabling skills’ are created to enable the language-skills to enhance the knowledge of the learner and the knowledge, on its part, will provide facilities that will result in genuine communication and language fluency. According to Nunan, David, (2004), the framework of enabling skills is divided into two kinds:

1. Language exercises.
2. Communicative activities.

According to Harmer, Jeremy (2007), tasks promote language acquisition through the types of language and interaction they require. Harmer, Jeremy (2007), says that although the teacher may present language in the pre-task, the learners are ultimately free to use what grammatical constructs and vocabulary they want. This, according to him, allows them to use all the language they know and are learning, rather than just using the ‘target language’ of the lesson. According Newton, J. (2001), “The teacher needs to ensure that, through tasks learners are given opportunities to meet and explore new vocabulary without direct teacher assistance, and to use this vocabulary to meet meaningful task goals.” On the other hand, Loschky, L. and Bley-Vroman, R. (1993), say that tasks can also be designed to make certain target forms ‘task-essential’, thus making it communicatively essential for learners to practice, learn and use them for developing communicative skills and language fluency. In terms of practices and interaction, information-gap tasks, in particular, have

been shown to promote negotiation of meaning and output modification that leads to creativity.

Material in the TbA and its Aims

Second/Foreign Language Acquisition researches have shown that language is not learned sequentially in an additive manner nor is it just a linear process of gradually accumulating new forms, structures and vocabulary items of the target language. It is therefore argued that synthetic materials are not effective because they depend on specifying and sequentially teaching linguistic and vocabulary items. The synthetic materials still operate on the assumption that learners will convert the pre-specified linguistic input, provided by the teacher, into intake. However, scholars such as Nunan, D. (2004), Beglar, D. and Hunt, A. (2002), support analytic teaching material such as the Task-based material which aims to activate the internal processes and lead to language acquisition. Therefore, Task-based material does not rely on activating the internal processes and leading to language acquisition, but also it aims to foster the optimal conditions for learning to take place by offering a linguistically rich environment of communicative practices and interaction to foster language learning and communicative skill.

In TbA, learners are free to use whatever language resources available to them. They are not restricted by fixed structures or vocabulary items. According to Van,

den Branden K. (2006), a Task-based material offers learners a sense of ‘freedom and responsibility’ which seems likely to increase learner’s motivation and interest in learning and interacting through the language. Whatever the material is, it has to activate communicative interactions among the learners and engage them in a lot of practices that develop language fluency. Nunan, D. (2004), argues that learners learn best through active use of language, therefore the majority of class time should be devoted to using the language in communicative contexts.

Numerous proposals have been forwarded for the selection and grading of tasks and develop them into a complete course of language learning. They try to deal with the problems which confront sequencing of tasks in the process of teaching/learning the target language. For example, Nunan, D. (2004), identifies three factors that affect task difficulty:

- Factors of input.
- Learner factors.
- Procedural factors.

Careful consideration of these factors can help teachers assess task difficulty and produce an appropriate sequence of tasks. Therefore, tasks are tailored according to learners’ interests and level. According to Candlin, C. N. (1987), “The cognitive load and clarity of the goal of the task, code complexity and interpretive density of the language to be used were some of the criteria considered

in establishing the level of difficulty of a task.” They should not be difficult or complicated. In this regard, task difficulty is defined by Skehan, P. (1998a), in terms of:

- i) code complexity which includes vocabulary load, redundancy and density.
- ii) communicative stress which comprises of time limits, time pressure, speed, number of participants.
- iii) cognitive complexity which consists of cognitive familiarity comprising of familiarity of the topic, familiarity of the discourse genre and familiarity of the task itself and cognitive processing which includes information clarity and sufficiency of information given. Thus, the task is designed to put the learner in activities of the real world such as how to apply for a job, attend the interview, etc.

Moreover, there is a three-stage Task-based Approach which is called Project Work. Legutke, M. and Thomas, H. (1993), define project-work as “a theme and task-centred mode of teaching and learning which results from a joint process of negotiation between all participants. It allows for a wide scope of self-determined action for both the individual and the small group of learners within a general framework of a plan which defines goals and procedures. Project learning realizes a dynamic balance between a process and a product orientation. Finally, it is experiential and holistic because it bridges dualism between body and mind, theory and practice.” Kilpatrick, W. H. (1925), on his turn defines project-work as “heartly

purposeful act.” In the first stage, the learners and the teacher plan the contents and scope of the project. In the second stage, they gather necessary information and write down the project. In the last stage, there is a review of the project in which the learners receive feedback from their teacher.

Similarly, tasks should not be so easy that they do not challenge the learners and motivate them to get involved in their communicative activities and discover their communicative potentialities. According to Nunan, D. (2004), Willis, J. (1996), through exposure to authentic materials and rich samples of listening and reading texts, TbA aims to provide learners with optimal learning conditions and opportunities that involve them in real-life interaction and develop their communicative skill and language fluency. As far as real-life interaction, Van, den Branden K. (2006), says that relating language to the real world is in fact a key factor of TBLT. Nunan, D. (2004), highlights the difference between target tasks; the real world uses learners may be expected to engage in, and the pedagogical task activities for practicing the language within the classroom which does not relate to a specific real-world use situation. Long, M. H. and Crookes, G. (1992, 1993), propose that a task-based material should begin by identifying relevant target tasks before classifying the tasks into task-types and finally devoting pedagogic tasks for classroom use. Thus, the recognition of real-world language use is further

exemplified in the support of needs-analysis within TBA.

Teaching/Learning Techniques in the TbA

Krashen, S. D. and Terrell, T. D. (1983), say that “language is best taught when it is being used to transmit messages, not when it is explicitly taught for conscious learning.” Therefore, in TBA, learners are given a lot of input by the teacher to show them how to tackle various communicative situations and messages in real life situations and use the language communicatively to develop fluency in transmitting messages. In this regard, the teacher is a facilitator of learning and not a controller of the process of learning. The role of a teacher is very significant in preparing the learners for task-performance such as pre-teaching vocabulary and grammatical items, increasing learners’ motivation to interact with each other and learn, etc.

The teacher facilitates the process of learning by making things simple, breaking the complex task into smaller and simpler units, giving learners achievable targets and fostering their self-confidence in learning the target language by making them feel that they are capable of upgrading their communicative abilities and language fluency.

The teacher involves the learners in the task by asking them whether the answers given by them were right or not. The learners are informed what precisely they are supposed to do with the material which they are

learning. This clarity facilitates the process of learning and involves the learners in the learning process through the task.

The teacher uses whatever language material is necessary to complete the task. The learners are given tasks which will engage them in genuine communicative activities throughout the learning session. Activities such as making telephone call for ambulance, reserving a room in a hotel, booking a ticket, calling for police, complaining to electricity authorities, conducting an interview, calling civil-defense for help, bargaining with a taxi-driver, problem solving, simulations, role-playing, etc. are used as they are very interesting and motivating to the learners. In this regard, the teacher assumes various roles such as undertaking the task of selecting, preparing and sequencing the tasks, involving learners in the process of learning and providing them with correct clues and answers by way of reformulation of what they have said in a more refined language. However, this does not mean that there is an intentional attempt to simplify the learning process in such a way that eradicates learning challenges, kills motivation in the learners and makes them feel that they are not facing a formidable task in the process of learning. Rather, the teacher's task is to convert learners' monosyllabic or phrasal answers into complete sentences, clauses and even complex sentences so as to give special uplifting efforts to those who have the potentiality to learn, progress and upgrade themselves

in the process of achieving communicative skills and language fluency.

Thus, Task-based Approach is useful for the learning process and makes the learners understand the target language in different ways. In fact, TBA meets the direct need of the learners, stimulates them and makes them capable of addressing the communicative aspects of the target language. It is important to remember that TBA avoids providing learners with abstract and unpractical knowledge that do not serve the real purpose of learning the target language and achieving communicative skills in it. TbA provides them only practical and real core of learning and gives them learning opportunities in natural contexts so as they may get engaged in language activities and perform real communication. In other words, it makes the learners use authentic information and move into real-world experience by using the language communicatively. Therefore, in TbA, the learner does not focus on a specific linguistic form or vocabulary item, but on the meaning. The learner uses the whole language to complete the task by, as Skehan, P. (1998a), says, “engaging in communication and task completion that progress takes place.” In other words, in Task-based Learning, the emphasis is always on the task rather than on the language forms or structures. Nevertheless, learners assimilate the form and structures and use them naturally, communicatively and contextually. In fact, learners get acquainted with the language and its formal

and semantic properties without any explicit explanation by the teacher. Both, Willis, J. (1996), and Skehan, P. (1996a), argue that focus on form is a necessary component of task-based instruction as it allows not only the introduction of potentially useful language for learners to experiment with, but also increases the saliency of features of the target language to facilitate noticing and implementing. According to Long, M. H. and Crookes, G. (1992), focusing on form speeds up the process of input becoming intake which is ready for appropriate use of the language. Hawkes, M. L. (2012), says that learner's attention can be further directed to the form of the language through repeating the performances of tasks as repetition of performance of the task enables closer focus on language form. This repetition, according to Nunan, D. (2004), supports an important principle of TBA, which aims to recycle language use in order to maximize learning opportunities and develop communicative abilities. It means that the Task-based Approach involves learners in learning and engages them in the communicative activities targeted by the material and thus they learn the language by interacting spontaneously, naturally, communicatively and purposefully.

Learners also perform various roles. They sort out, interpret and explain things in the course of the learning session. They participate in groups, monitor class activities and involve themselves in new learning tasks

and innovative activities that develop their communicative skill and fluency. Therefore, the tasks selected should encourage learners and make them participate actively to develop their own communicative skills and push them move from simply memorized and reproduced language items to use the language skills creatively and innovatively by applying the familiar words and expressions creatively to the arising communicative contexts. Such activities develop both comprehension and speaking skills in the learners and increase their self-confidence and conviction that that learning and communication in the target language can be achieved and fostered. Thus, it is very clear that in Task-based Approach, self-learning is promoted and encouraged among learners. In fact, TbA provides basic elements in the form of purposeful activities and tasks that emphasize communication and meaning and pushes the learners into interaction through the target language. The learners are given tasks in which they can interact with their classmates and the teacher as well. Thus, they get exposed to a lot of authentic language and many new structures simultaneously.

However, learners should be given a systematic feedback about their language performance so as to make them possess a clear idea about the extent of their learning achievement and enable them to have an analytical feedback about their performance in the language they are learning. This will enable the learners to know their

learning defects and exert efforts to transcend them.

Moreover, the errors made by the learners are corrected incidentally for the sake of attaining relative measure of accuracy only because, in the process of learning, language must be used for carrying out meaningful tasks so as to promote meaningful language, achieve intelligible communication and enhance the process of learning it naturally and spontaneously. Therefore, teacher does not give much attention to learners' errors. Thus, it is clear that Task-based Approach reduces the gap between language-knowledge and language-use and tends to accomplish the main task of promoting the communicative ability of the learner.

In TbA, the teacher should follow stages in the process of teaching. There should be a pre-task before learners reach the level of doing the things on their own. The pre-task makes the learner familiar with what they are going to do later on in the process of learning the target language. According to Willis, J. (1996), tasks can be used as the central component of a three-part framework: 'pre-task', 'task-cycle', and 'language focus.' These stages are as follows:

Pre-task

At this stage, learners get exposure to the subject-matter of the task that presents to them the target teaching item. They get also an opportunity to recall things they know to reproduce them according to the subject-matter of the task which is being introduced to

them. The teacher introduces the topic and explains to the learners what they have to do at the task-stage. The pre-task stage is considered to be the theme that explains the objectives of the task and creates a brainstorming for the learners. This brief introduction or exposure at the pre-task stage gives the learners necessary language-input on which they will depend when they start doing the main task and its activities. The pre-task may include some models such as pictures, mime, personal experience and showing recorded video or audio for the learners who are going to do the task.

Task-cycle

The Task-cycle exposes learners to speaking and writing activities and provides them with opportunities to learn from each other without giving any consideration to mistakes committed while performing communication. In other words, the Task-cycle gives learners opportunities to use whatever language they have in their stock without being harassed by the probabilities of committing errors.

Language-focus

Willis, J. (1996), includes Language-focus and practice to facilitate learning of the new language. In the Language-focus, the teacher may highlight useful words and phrases so as the learners can understand new words and improve the quality of the language they

produce at the task-stage. This will make them explore the target language, observe some features of the language, get acquainted with some aspects of the syntax and structure, collocation and lexis, get some ideas about the nature of the language to be used in the task and finally be able to participate effectively in communicating through it.

The Task

The Task can be done by a pair or a group of learners by using whatever language resources they possess to express themselves interactively, spontaneously and contextually. Meanwhile, the teacher walks around, monitors everything, offers suggestions to create more brain-storming to learners, encourages and supports the learners to communicate in the target language, helps learners to formulate the language without correcting their mistakes, builds up the spontaneity and self-confidence of the learners and fosters their motivation to get involved in natural communication in the target language. Thus, the task should have close relation to meaning that depicts real-life so as to have a real-learning results at the end. Shekan, P. (1989), lists features of 'task' as: (1) meaning is primary; (2) there is some sort of relationship to comparable real-world activities; (3) task completion has some priority; (4) the assessment of tasks is in terms of outcome.

Planning

It is the stage in which the learners, who participated in the activity of the task, should come out with what they want to say or write in their final report. In other words, they should prepare a short report; either oral or written, for addressing the whole class on the task they dealt with; what they have done and what the outcome was. At the same time the teacher should be available in the class to advise the learners on language in general, suggest words and phrases for them, help the learners to refine their language-output, correct learners if they go wrong or commit errors, encourage peer-editing among learners and answer any question that may be asked by the learners at this stage.

Report

Some pairs or a group of learners may present their report to the class and the rest of the learners can compare it with their own findings, comment or add even more points to them. The teacher also can comment on their report, rephrase their language without correcting errors, but he may note down the language points that still cause problems to learners so as to conduct remedy sessions to eradicate those problems. Thus, the learners start practicing language under the monitoring, facilitation and supervision of the teacher. This gives a sense of achievement to good learners and the same time it offers sufficient exposure to other learners who can be

active and improve their performance.

Post-task Practice

At this stage, the teacher selects areas for practice according to the requirements of learners. Then the learners practice activities to improve their confidence in dealing with useful language. Thus, they also get exposed to the language of each other and offer valuable feedback to each other as well. Hence, it can be said that Task-Based Learning is a strong communicative approach when learners spend a lot of time in communication and feel that it is enjoyable, beneficial and motivating.

Types of Tasks

The Tasks vary in their methods and level of complexity and the nature complexity. Prabhu, N. S. (1987), classifies them into four categories of classroom activities. They are as follows:

a. Rule-focused Activity

Here the learners indulge in doing the tasks recalling the rules of grammar. It takes a conscious effort from their part to apply what they have learnt so far in the process of learning. This activity requires understanding and it is evident that the explicit rules do not help the learners to put it to good use.

b. Form-focused Activity

Learners are involved with repetition of

given language forms and from them they derive new forms to be applied in communicative activities and in real-life contexts. This kind of practice is very valuable in their learning as it entails and facilitates subconscious assimilation of the structure and promotes language use in real communicative situation. It will also lead to the learning of language skills and provide them with a sense of independence and experience in all the four skills of the language, namely, listening, speaking, reading and writing.

c. Meaningful Activity

Here, the focus is mainly on meaning. The learners repeat, manipulate and build new language forms by paying attention not only to the forms of the language they are learning, but also to the meanings of the context with which they are related to in communicative situations. It is much valuable not only in learning the structure of the language, but also to have better understanding of their contexts of use or knowing the meanings of the contexts themselves.

d. Meaning-focused Activity

At this stage, the learners are involved and fully motivated to have more comprehension and understanding. They would focus on conveying the message or relating the meaning to the communicative situation and they would try to cope with the language forms though

the main focus is not given to language forms or it is not intentionally taken care of, however, the forms are helpful to express and organize meaning of the message that conveys it.

Advantages of the TbA

Leaver, B. L. and Willis, J. R. (2004), praise Task-based Language Teaching by stating that it has been used at nearly all government institutions that teach foreign languages since the 1980s. Taking into consideration the changes that postmodernism helped bringing to language teaching, it is impossible to ignore TbA because it combines and promotes many postmodern features of language teaching theory and practice including collaboration (border-crossing), autonomy (de-colonization), student-centeredness (decentralization) and negotiation of meaning (deconstruction). Moreover, tasks involve the learners in their learning (self-referencing), and in doing so, tasks promote decision-making, problem-solving, critical thinking, and responsibility for learning (decentralization). Furthermore, TbA has become associated with the development of learning strategies, which are essential parts of autonomous learning. Finally, as Finch, A. E. (2006), articulates, TbA enables form and performance to be combined (border crossing) in a Form-Focused Interaction Approach.

The advantages of TbA may be enumerated as follows:

- Tasks in Task-based Approach are characterized by authenticity of the language material which is a crucial matter in learning the target language through TbA as it provides optimum exposure to easy language to learners of various levels.
- TbA advocates a learner-centred approach to language learning as it engages the learners in purposeful communication activities and practices, gives them abundant opportunities to try out various communicative strategies and equips them with language skills for use in actual life. It means that TbA promotes communicative competence for language use even outside the class. Hence, it can be said that TbA is communication-based approach that involves the learner in a meaning-focused language usage and makes them internalize the form of the language.
- Task-based Approach creates conditions in which language learning occurs spontaneously and naturally in context as it permits the introduction of real-world language into the classroom, prepares learners to use language in the real-world communication and allows them to experience the differences between the artificial language usually used in the official setting of the classroom and the real language which exists in the natural setting outside the classroom.
- As Task-based Approach encourages learners to interact spontaneously and use language purposefully in group interaction, it builds up learners' self-confidence

in the process of language learning. It means that by making the learners participate in the task, the Task-based Approach aspires to make the learners not only learn the new language items, but also make use of the same outside the classroom.

- In Task-based Approach, learners' attention is drawn towards problem-solving activities that lead to natural communication instead of wasting their time in focusing on isolated forms and structures of the target language. In other words, it considers that language learning is more complex than mere learning of grammatical forms of the language. It considers that language is not learnt by a focus on forms and grammar, but by practicing it in meaningful context and situation. Therefore, Task-Based Approach allows learners to place form of the language within a meaningful context that enables them to communicate spontaneously and naturally. Therefore, while dealing with different tasks, many grammatical and functional points appear and reappear many times, thus, they provide opportunities for the learners to restructure them in various contexts and situations. It means that, both, the cognitive and the communicative competence of the learners are developed simultaneously as the learners perform a task. Thus, by making learners communicate, spontaneously, with each other, Task-based Approach provides them with opportunities to assimilate language items that they encountered, internalize various aspects of the language and become

linguistically and communicatively efficient. They become not only communicative, but also accurate by means of their frequent practices and experimentations with language forms that make them capable of deploying their existing syntactic and semantic knowledge in conversational act more efficiently. Through negotiation of meaning, learners become capable of conveying meaning in acceptable form. Willis, J. (1996), further argues that success and satisfaction in using language to achieve task-goals will lead to increased motivation which is a strong factor in succeeding in language learning.

- Learners may make mistakes in the classroom. However, they are not explicitly corrected as the learners must focus on meaning rather than mere trying to conform to linguistic rules of the target language. In fact, Task-Based Approach believes that grammar-focused activities do not reflect natural way of learning a language. It believes that complicated errors should be dealt with after performing a task. Thus, Task-based Approach considers that accepting learners' error in the classroom decreases learning anxiety, promotes learners' self-confidence, upgrades fluency in the target language and even develops self-initiated error-correction skills in the learners.
- A major strength of Task-based Approach, according to Willis, J. (1996), is that through meaning-focused activity, interaction and removal of teacher's dominance,

tasks can facilitate increased fluency and further learning. Thus, TbA can also be beneficial for learners who lack fluency in the target language. In fact, Task-based Approach encourages more efficient deployment of existing language resources which are often seen to, greatly, benefit fluency. Task-cycles can also be adapted, if necessary, to encourage further fluency of the learner in the target language.

- TbA allows learners to use the stock of vocabulary and grammar they already know and at the same time it gives learners further opportunity to learn more vocabulary in context and thus vocabulary learning occurs situationally and contextually. At the same time, Task-based Approach allows the learners to transfer their previous acquired knowledge, creatively and innovatively, to new communicative situations and contexts and benefit from others' expressions in the classroom and outside the classroom as well. It means that Task-based Approach provides opportunities for learners to use their own language at their stages of development and get exposed to others' language as well.
- In Task-based Approach, learners do not depend on the familiar process of passive transference of the target language from the teacher nor do they wait for external answers to their learning-questions or issues. They rather learn how to process and transform information by themselves and answer the questions and issues by themselves. Thus, the Task-based Approach helps

learners express themselves through strategies they find most useful for expressing themselves. It means that Task-based Approach improves automaticity of learning and ultimately the performance of learners in developing their language abilities.

- The material of Task-based Approach offers flexibility and numerous benefits in a wide variety of teaching contexts. It can be adapted to a wide variety of teaching/learning contexts such as English for Specific Purposes (ESP), teaching young learners and beginners as well as helping experienced learners improve their fluency and accuracy in the target language. It is useful, specially, for learners who are involved in courses for specific purposes. Designing pedagogic tasks based on needs analyses for use in the classroom along with the inclusion of authentic materials seem particularly suited to ESP in areas such as business letters, presentation at meetings, etc. Seedhouse, P. (1999), while critical of Task-based Approach, admits and highlights its benefits for ESP. Moreover, Stark, P. P. (2005), and Evans, S. (2013), describe the positive results of using TbA in business English classes.
- The interaction that takes place among learners during learning sessions is useful even for performing real-world tasks. In fact, that interaction displays some sort of relationship to the language of the real world and seeks to achieve a kind of interactional authenticity if not situational authenticity. Guariento, W. and Morley,

J. (2001), claim that a simplified version of the task can help the learners to deal with actual current communication and also cope with long term language development.

Disadvantages of the TbA

Critics are of the opinion that TbA is difficult to implement. Practitioners also admit that TbLT is a complex methodology. The following points may depict the demerits of TbA:

- Littlewood, T. W. (2007), speaks about teachers fear over their own perceived lack of proficiency in both TbA and the target language itself. Their fear arises from the unpredictability of the teaching situations which they may face in TbA classes which they did not use to face while teaching through the traditional approaches and methods. Shehadeh, A. (2005), argues that one reason traditional approaches remain popular is that teachers can predict language that will occur in lessons. In other words, the traditional approaches and methods allowed teachers to choose beforehand exactly what will be used in class, however, in TbA inexperienced teachers may fear encountering language points which they may not be able to explain immediately. The issue to the teacher becomes the extent of his ability to control over the material of teaching.
- TbA increased the demands on teachers in general. This is perhaps especially valid for non-native-speaker

teachers who may not possess the confidence or the linguistic knowledge to deal with unexpected language, implement Task-based Approach in big classes, cater to the needs of diverse groups of learners and find effective ways for the execution of tasks. Skehan, P. (1996b), recognizes that teachers will need to 'command a significantly wider range of skills than in more structural approaches', while Willis, J. (1996), states that teachers may feel uncomfortable stepping away and allowing learners to have more control over their learning process.

- There are also the problems pertaining to the designing of teaching material and implementation, or as Hedge, T. (2000), puts it 'how to put together a series of tasks to form a coherent programme.' According to Skehan, P. (2002), a task for learners with different talents, learning styles and motivation levels may be relevant for some learners, but for other learners it may be very difficult and for some other learners it may be very easy.
- Designing the suitable task in such a way as to employ learners' already acquired knowledge in the process of learning the target language is a formidable challenge to those teachers who adopt Task-based Approach. In other words, it may not be an easy matter to design tasks that are practical and useful for real life. The already adopted tasks such as those which ask the learner to describe a picture, identify the differences between

two pictures, tell a story based on pictures, etc. may never occur in real-life situations. Even for those learners who have some existing knowledge, the challenge is how the learner would make use of the already acquired knowledge and organize that existing knowledge to complete the target tasks to help himself to learn the target language. To do so, the learner needs many skills. Brown, H. D. (1987), draws attention to the fact that in order to complete a task, a learner needs to have sufficient organizational competence, illocutionary competence to convey intended meaning, strategic competence to compensate for unforeseen difficulties and then all the tools of discourse, pragmatics and even nonverbal communicative ability.

- It may not be easy to provide all learners who have different levels of previously acquired knowledge with tasks that suit them. Learners with little previously acquired knowledge may find the tasks challenging whereas learners with sufficient previously acquired knowledge may find the tasks easy and unprofitable. The learners may go through the trouble in order to reach a certain goal. But very often learners' learning needs are neglected.
- The preparation of a task-based material is time-consuming and psychologically exhausting for teachers. According Cheng, Xiongyong and Moses, S. (2011), 68.2% of teachers said TbA increased preparation time, and 37.9% found it a significant psychological burden.

Nunan, D. and Keobke, K. (1995), studied the performance of 35 undergraduate learners by using various reading, listening and speaking tasks. They asked the learners how difficult the tasks were and why. The learners stated that lack of familiarity with task types, confusion over the purpose of the task and the impact and extent of cultural knowledge are the main factors that create task-difficulty. The complexity of operating within the Task-based Approach was expressed further by Breen, M. P. (1987b), who says that “learners are capable of playing havoc with even the most carefully designed task.” The same classroom event is often viewed differently by the teachers and learners. Therefore, the learning outcome of the task may not be consistent with the objectives for which the task was originally designed. Consequently, this may create a mismatch between the perception of both the learners and the teachers about the final result of the process of teaching/learning the target language.

- TbA increased the demands on teachers in general though it is not a teacher-centred approach. It becomes difficult for the teacher to monitor the tasks performed by the learners whether it is pair-work or group-work unless he demands individual or group responsibility and commitment on the part of the learners.
- Task-based Approach is an analytic way approach. It would pose a difficulty for absolute beginners whose language resources are very limited. In other words,

learners with limited language resources would face difficulty to learn through Task-based Approach. That is why Littlewood, T. W. (2007), admits that there are problems in implementing TbA in low-level EFL classrooms. It means that learners who are beginners and do not have linguistic resources or background may find it difficult to participate in a task, speak or continue in speaking. They may be so weak in the target language that they may not even be able to explain the difficulties they are facing with the task itself. Consequently, this may lead them to lose confidence in themselves and this is contrary to the aims and spirit of the Task-based Approach. Thus, TbA may be difficult with learners at or below primary school age as it aims to give learners more control over their own learning, which may not be appropriate at very young ages. Carless, D. (2002), for example identified problems of noise and indiscipline, over-use of mother tongue and students' involvement when implementing TbA in primary schools in Hong Kong, although he continues to suggest potential remedies for these difficulties. It, therefore, seems reasonable to suggest that task-based material should be used with caution with young learners and absolute beginners.

- Opponents of TbA such as Swan, M. (2005), and Seedhouse, P. (1999), argue that while tasks are useful, it is unsound to use them as the basis for material design. Task-based interaction is criticized by Seedhouse,

P. (1999), who claims that TbA produces only a restricted kind of communication. In fact, strong criticism of Task-based Approach comes from Swan, M. (2005), who casts doubt on the whole theories that underlie TbA. He considers that depending on TbA is like depending on the on-line hypothesis which claims that learning only takes place during communication. He considers that explicit knowledge does not necessarily translate to the ability to use language.

- A problem also exists with the use of some types of tasks which requires from the learner to spot the differences between, for example, pictures. The learners may deal with them without the need to use any language, consequently, nullifying the aim behind the designing of the task and its introduction which is the development the communicative skill. They may achieve an outcome of a task; that is the difference between the pictures and not the aim of the task; that is practicing communication naturally.
- The reaction of the learners towards the tasks is said to be very different. According to Coughlin, P. and Duff, P. (1994), some learners try to make the interaction more genuine by taking part in their roles properly while some learners take part in the task quite mechanically. Thus, TbA does not guarantee natural communication. Learners may also carry out talking for the sake of talking only and not for the sake of genuine communication. Thus, tasks as core activities do not

guarantee communicative expansion or the correctness of language used.

- As a form of teaching, Task-based Approach is in conflict with cultural contexts. Some Task-based examples are culturally-loaded and inappropriate in the non-western contexts. Littlewood, T. W. (2004), says that involving all the learners in a heterogeneous class in a task becomes problematic. Van, den Branden K. (2006), assumes that a particular task may interest a few learners belonging to a particular gender or cultural background, but it may not be of interest to the others. In other words, there are cultural and contextual constraints that emerge when adopting Task-based Approach. According to Ellis, R. (2009), “The content of many of the tasks that figure in both research and language teaching materials implicitly espouse the cultural values and norms of the western English-speaking world.” Carless, D. (2012), says that cultural-loading TBLT may reflect a ‘western’ view of teaching, and opposition to the method has been described in international studies. Separating cultural anxiety from learner/teacher anxiety is difficult, but in regions where the role of teacher and student is clearly delineated the blurring of those boundaries may create issues.
- Opponents to Task-based material also criticize claims made regarding the benefits of focus on form. Sheen, R. (2003), proposes that focus on form is a myth advocated by proponents of TbA to support the new

teaching method.

- According to Skehan, P. (1996), a danger of Task-based Interaction is that if used alone it may sufficiently foster fluency, but it does not lead to actual language growth. It is important to remember that language learners have their own specific needs and not all learners need the same kind of tasks. A new language is learnt for a variety of reasons and purposes. According to Breen, M. P. (1989), the learners' purposes are said to be distributed on a continuum between achievement orientation and survival orientation. If the learner perceives that a task is related closely to his needs, he tends to adopt an achievement orientation. Whereas on the other hand if he does not perceive the relevance of the task, he adopts survival orientation, puts in minimal effort and uses the simplest strategy to perform the task.

Conclusion

Problems related to TbA give the impression of an approach that has been ill thought-out and is thus easy to dismiss without knowing its actual value. Although Task-based Approach may contain difficulties yet to be overcome, it provides an attractive alternative to other teaching methods and approaches. If there are demerits in TbA, it is simply because it is not being implemented correctly in many contexts. Cheng Xiongyong and Moses, S. (2011), found that 48.5% of teachers

incorrectly believed a task to be “an activity where the target language is used by learners.” The frequency of such misunderstandings reflects badly upon TbA. Moreover, Task-based Approach is often claimed to be incompatible with traditional testing methods. It is true that synthetic syllabuses lend themselves easily to testing, however, Nunan, D. (2004), suggests that in TbA performance can be measured by means of using criterion-referenced testing.

Eclectic Approach or Compromise Method

Introduction

The techniques, procedures and practices in the domain of current language teaching are the outcome of the cumulative experiences about the past approaches and methods. However, theoreticians and practitioners in the field of language teaching/learning realized that all approaches and methods of language teaching have limitations and no approach or method is perfect enough to be, solely, adopted and followed to the relegation of the rest of approaches and methods to the margin. In other words, the theoreticians and practitioners' circles realized that no perfect or ideal method is there since each method has its own strengths and weaknesses. According to William, E. Bull (1965), "any given method is only as effective as its implementation." He further adds that, "the superior teacher has regularly gotten superior results regardless of the method." It means that one single thought in language education is not sufficient and can't fulfill all language teaching goals, objectives and contexts. One approach or method may be better or more effective than the others for certain teaching/learning situations, contexts, goals and objectives, but not for all

teaching/learning situations, contexts, goals and objectives. Such a situation made Gebhard J. G., Gaitan S. and Oprandy R. (1990), argue that there is no convincing evidence from pedagogic research, including research into second language instruction, that there is any single universal or 'best' way to teach a language. Nunan, D. (1991a), is probably correct when he remarks that "it has been realised that there never was and probably will never be a method for all." Reid, J. (2001), went to the extent of saying that "one size does not fit all, ..." He recommended that teacher may use a "variety of approaches that permits teachers to extend their repertoire." Gao, L. (2011), claimed that the current preferred methods of teaching are a combination of Grammar-Translation Method, Structural Approach and Communicative Approach. He advises teachers to take advantage of all other methods and at the same time avoid their disadvantages.

Relying upon a single theory, approach or method of teaching has been criticized also by Gilliland B. E., James R. K. and Bowman J. T. (1994); Lazarus, A. A. and Beutler, L. E. (1993), since it may cause inflexible and mechanistic teaching that does not produce an actual or tangible learning. At some stages, methods were charged of dividing the process of teaching/learning into chunks and separate entities like grammar, vocabulary, etc. which are difficult to unify or teach in order to produce fruitful and integrated results. Therefore, the common

contemporary trend was in favor of not dividing the language as it used to be done by different methods. According to Kumar, C. P. (2013), “language should not be separated into chunks like pronunciation, grammar and vocabulary.” Moreover, many methods claim that courses should be learner-centered whereas modern scholars were against making language teaching absolutely learner-centered and converting the teacher into just an observer who has no actual hand over what is going in the class in the name of learner-centered courses. Commenting on learner-centered class Blumberg, P. (2008), says that learner-centered teachers do not employ a single teaching method.

Thus, reliance upon a single theory of teaching is often criticized because it uses a limited number of techniques. This makes the whole effort a mechanical process and fruitless. Therefore, the common trend, in the end of the 20th. century, started calling to depart the dominant practice of depending on a single method or approach. However, such a call was not new. In fact, in the early decades of the 20th. century, Palmer, H. E., in his book ‘The Principles of Language Study’ which was published in (1921), talked about ‘the multiple line of approach’ that embodies the eclectic principles which gives practitioners the opportunity to choose judiciously what is relevant to specific teaching/learning context. Thus, Palmer was one of the early exponents of the Eclectic Approach (EA) who came long before the rest of

the advocates of the Eclectic Approach. Palmer, H. E. (1964), illustrated the operation of the Eclectic Approach as follows: “find the right stone to kill the right bird and it is advisable to kill one bird with more than one stone.” Sweet, H. (1899-1964), also was one of the leading figures in language teaching profession. He believed that a good method must be comprehensive and eclectic.

Thus, there was a general tendency to amalgam the methods and extract from them a mixture that helps practitioners in language teaching. Stern, H. H. (1983), notes ‘Memorandum on the Teaching of Modern Languages’, which was published in 1929 on the basis of a British study, recommended the Eclectic Approach or ‘Compromise Method’ as a solution to the debate about language teaching method. Many theoreticians and practitioners reached to a conclusion that an eclectic blending of instructional approaches can prove most effective because learners need to experience and learn a wide variety of language skills and for this purpose different approaches are useful for teaching various aspects of these skills.

In the late 1970s; after the emergence of a wide variety of methods and their failure, the hot debate over which method was the best for teaching languages started among researchers and practitioners. Some teachers thought that implementing just one method and sincerely following what the theorizers found as practical techniques are appropriate. On the other hand, there are

some practitioners who reject the idea of limiting themselves to a single method. They tried to adapt or adopt various methods and approaches in order to construct their own 'repertoire' of teaching practices which they think to be appropriate for their context and goals of their learners.

Consequently, in the 1980s, the Eclectic Method was proposed as a reaction to the profusion of a large number of language teaching methods which failed to deliver the task of teaching/learning languages effectively. Many scholars were having a rosy prediction about the effectiveness of Eclectic Method. For example, Rodgers, T. (2001), predicted that this synergistic approach is "likely to shape the teaching of second languages in the next decades of the new millennium." Thus, the Eclectic Approach that combines the best features of each approach and method to produce an optimal overall result and helps learners achieve worthy language education goals has been strongly advocated.

Definitions/Meaning of the EA

Al-Hamash, I. K. and Younis, H. (1985), consider Eclectic Approach "as a type of methodology that makes use of the different language learning approaches instead of sticking to one standard approach." Kumar, C. P. (2013), notes that "the eclectic method is a combination of different method of teaching and learning approaches." Gao, L. (2011), describes the Eclectic

Approach as “not a concrete, single method, but a method, which combines listening, speaking, reading, and writing and includes some practice in the classroom.” Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), considers that “when teachers who subscribe to the pluralistic view of methods pick and choose from among methods to create their own blend, their practice is said to be eclectic.” Thus, many theoreticians claimed that teaching methods can supplement and aid each other in the process of teaching the target language through Eclectic Approach.

Objectives of the EA

According to Hammerly, H. (1991), eclecticism was introduced with a good intention to promote “the careful, principled combination of sound ideas from sound sources into a harmonious whole that yields the best results.” Wali, N. H. (2009), summarizes the whole issue by saying that “...one of the premises of eclecticism is that teaching should serve learners not methods. Thus, teachers should feel free in choosing techniques and procedures inside the classroom. There is no ideal approach in language learning. Each one has its merits and demerits. There is no royalty to certain methods. It means that teachers should know that they have the right to choose the best methods and techniques in any method according to learners’ needs and learning situation. Teachers can adopt a flexible method and technique so as to achieve their goals. They may choose

whatever works best at a particular time in a particular situation.” Kumar, C. P. (2013), states that “the purpose of advocating eclectic methods is to connect life experiences to the ideas presented in learning of the language. The types of learning activities teachers select are often directly related to their experiences in the real world.”

According to Weidemann, A. (2001), the justification for the use of Eclectic Approach to language teaching lies in its fashionability which is fostered by the argument to have an amalgam of various procedures and techniques that are derived from various method. He says that the eclectic approach has been so widely accepted and adopted that “today, many good teachers use it proudly as a tag to describe their teaching, wearing it almost like a badge of honour.”

Features of the EA

The Eclectic Approach is not a rigid approach. It adopted some of the features of the previous methods and approaches and amalgamated them to develop a synthetic approach in the field of language teaching. For example, it does not deny the value and utility of the mother tongue in the process of learning the target language. It means that learning a new language is facilitated by what the learner already knows in the mother-tongue. Hence, the mother-tongue helps in learning the target language. Stern, H. H. (1992), noted

that “it is the nature of linguistic and communicative competence that...L1 (or the second language previously learnt) is the yardstick and guide to our new L2.” Stern, H. H. (1992), says that “the emphasis on an intralingual or crosslingual strategy should be decided in relation to the goals of the learners, their previous experience in the L2, the context in which the programme takes place and the ability of the teacher to function intralingually or crosslingually.”

Luo L., He F. and Yang F. (2001), sum up five features of successful eclectic teaching. They are as follows:

- 1) Determines the purposes of each individual method;
- 2) be flexible in the selection and application of each method;
- 3) makes each method effective;
- 4) consider the appropriateness of each method; and,
- 5) maintains the continuity of the whole teaching process.

Principles of the EA

The following principles of Eclectic Approach as presented by Al-Khuli M. Ali (1981), may be considered:

- Giving teachers a chance to choose different kinds of teaching techniques in each class period to reach the aims of the lesson;
- Flexibility in choosing any aspect or method that teachers think suitable for teaching inside the classroom;

- Giving a chance to pupils to see different kinds of teaching techniques that break monotony and dullness on one hand and ensure better understanding for the material on the other hand;
- Solving difficulties concerning presenting the language material in the pupils' textbook;
- Using different kinds of teaching aids which leads to better understanding;
- Saving a lot of time and efforts in presenting language activities.

Ali, A. M. (1981), also lists the following principles of eclecticism:

- (a) Teachers are given a chance to choose different kinds of teaching techniques in each class period to reach the aims of the lesson.
- (b) There is flexibility in choosing any aspect or method that teachers think suitable for teaching inside the classroom.
- (c) Learners can see different kinds of teaching techniques, using different kinds of teaching aids, that help to make lessons much more stimulating and ensures better understanding of the material on the other hand.
- (d) Solving difficulties that may emerge from the presentation of the textbook materials.
- (e) Finally, it saves both time and effort in the presentation of language activities.

Characteristics of the EA

According to Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), eclecticism is said to be opposed to:

- a) single-theory reliance or absolutism,
- b) relativism, and/or,
- c) unconstrained pluralism.

Thus, the Eclectic Approach has many characteristics. They may be enumerated as follows:

- The Eclectic Approach recognizes that teaching and learning situations are not identical and can't be identical. They are different and therefore each teaching/learning context and situation requires amalgaming of procedures and techniques that suit the teaching/learning context.
- The model eclectic teacher is well-versed in all teaching methods and approaches from which he extracts what suits his teaching/learning context and situation.
- The Eclectic Approach recognizes the role of the mother-tongue in teaching/learning the target language.
- The Eclectic Approach applies intralingual and cross-lingual strategies in the process of teaching the target language.
- The Eclectic Approach is context-specific and formed according to local needs and requirements of teaching/learning the target language.

Material and Teaching Procedures in the EA

In the Eclectic Approach, the teachers enjoy

flexibility in making decisions based on learners' performance and feedback. They are freed from the shackles of adhering to a single method where they have few choices with regard to follow limited instructional techniques and procedures to accommodate the multiple contextual factors that surround their teaching/learning situations. The Eclectic Approach allows teachers to adopt the most suitable techniques and procedures from various methods. This means that teachers take all the good parts from different methods and assemble them to make a new set of teaching techniques and procedures. According to Bell, D. M. (2007), "The successful teacher usually organizes and makes a blend of methods he/she thinks are appropriate. Each method has its value and uniqueness on one side and its difficulties and disadvantages on the other side." Thus, eclecticism, if well-assembled and constructed, is capable of incorporating language goal, instruction, learning needs, learners' need, teachers' preferences and learning styles into a set of a completely new type of contents and procedures. This flexible teaching strategy is essential to devise the lesson in such a way that facilitates the arrival to the meaning and addresses each learner's individual needs as well. As the Eclectic Approach derives from various methods and approaches, teaching material should contain selections from materials prescribed for various methods and approaches such as realia, charts, text books, magazines, newspapers, radio, film, music, maps,

pictures, computers, etc so as to make the lesson concentrate on the meaning also and not only the form of the context and foster the interest and motivation of the learner. Duncan, P. (2004), states that in the classroom, “meaning [can be] made through an interaction of music, the spoken voice, sound effects, language and pictures.”

In the Eclectic Approach, error correction is important as it helps learners to have a clear and quick feedback and thus change their earlier wrong knowledge and replace it with the correct one. On the importance of error correction, Krashen, S. D. (1982), says that when error correction works, it does so by helping the learner change his/her conscious mental representation of a rule. In other words, it affects learned competence by informing the learner that his/her current version of a conscious rule is wrong. Thus, second language acquisition theory implies that when the goal is learning, errors should indeed be corrected. The strategy of correcting the learner’s error is not only confined to the teacher, but also to the learners themselves by involving them in the correction of the errors of their peers. Li, W. (2012), goes to the extent of suggesting that “the responsibility of error correction can be assumed by the students rather than the teacher so that they will learn from mistakes.”

As the Eclectic Approach value error correction, therefor, there is a clear emphasis on teaching grammar. Krashen, S. D. (1982) argues that both deductive and

inductive teaching of the grammar of the target language is important. Thus, Krashen wants to say that neither the deductive nor the inductive approach to rule explanation is wrong. Mellow, J. D. (2002), noted that “such intersections would acknowledge that language is both form and function, and that some active construction can occur during communicative language use...the mid-point axis is conceptualised as the pairing of form and function.” Nunan, D. (2001), also advises teachers to teach “language in ways that make form/function relationship transparent.” Ridge, E. (2000), states that linguistic competence and linguistic performance are not the same thing, but the two are reconcilable when teaching a language in the classroom. Thus, in Eclectic Approach, the concern about the form has been supported by a concern about the function and meaning of the context.

Teacher's Role in the EA

In the Eclectic Approach, teachers redefined their roles and they have been considered as the facilitators of the learning situations rather than the authorities in the class. Rivers, W. M. (1986); one of the chief advocates of the Eclectic Approach, says that an Eclectic Approach allows language teachers “to absorb the best techniques of all the well-known language teaching methods into their classroom procedures, using them for the purposes for which they are most

appropriate.” The teacher can add what is required to be added, teach the form and function of the language, correct the mistakes of the learner and monitor the performance of the learners. Hence, the teacher is an organizer, monitor and explainer. Wali, N. H. (2009), observes that the most effective way of applying the Eclectic Approach is that teachers should “provide a variety of activities to meet the needs of different learning styles so that all students will have at least some activities that appeal to them...teachers need techniques that work in their particular situations with specific objectives that [are] meaningful for the kind of students they have in their classes.”

The teacher may use a variety of techniques, strategies and procedures to make language comprehensible, monitor learner’s comprehension and make adjustments as necessary to his teaching context. In doing so, the teacher has to, constantly, adjust the lesson, practices and activities according to the learners’ need and classroom dynamics and provide multiple opportunities for learners so that they can learn the target language effectively.

Learner’s Role in the EA

As, the Eclectic Approach is learner-centered Approach, learners should play an active role in the process of learning. Li, W. (2012), summarizes the roles of the learner as follows: “Learners are the centre of the class. They have multiple roles. As individuals, they are

active participants of the activity, explorer of the language, negotiator and evaluator of the learning process. Their needs and interests influence the course. As a group member, the learner is the source of the input and part of a support system. Students work cooperatively in classroom activities. Their output is the others' input. They help each other in solving problems rather than depending wholly on the teacher. We can use group discussion in solving the problems so as to encourage independence. In a word, the learner takes initiative in the classroom."

Advantages of the EA

It is obvious that any one method does not serve the right purpose of teaching all the skills of the target language in all teaching contexts. Therefore, teaching the target language by means of combining useful techniques and procedures from various methods and approaches will help the teacher to teach effectively and make the learner learn efficiently. In fact, the Eclectic Approach includes almost every kind of learning activity by blending the practices of four macro skills; listening, speaking, reading and writing into an organic whole.

Brown, H. D. (2002), states that the Eclectic Approach is useful as it gives the teacher freedom to choose what is appropriate in their own dynamic teaching contexts. It allows the teacher to use various techniques and activities drawn from a range of language teaching

approaches and methodologies. It is the teacher who decides what techniques and procedures to select from various methods and approaches depending on the aims of the lesson and the learners in the group. A language teacher may be tempted to apply the Eclectic Approach by considering its advantages. It may derive from each method its best teaching practices to support Eclectic Approach teaching session. Thus, the Eclectic Approach may make use of different kinds of learning procedures, techniques and activities that may save learners from monotony, enable them to learn and consolidate their learning. Now it is seen that most modern course books have a mixture of approaches and methodologies.

Kumar, C. P. (2013), mentions the following advantages of the Eclectic Approach:

- (a) It is easier for learners to understand the language of the text in its cultural context.
- (b) It blends listening, speaking, reading and writing.
- (c) Helps teacher to teach effectively by drawing on the strength of various methods and avoiding their weaknesses.
- (d) Learning is easy due to the use of realistic situations in the classroom.

Thus, the Eclectic Approach helps the teacher to incorporate the best methodological options available in various methods and approaches into his lesson so that learners can become competent and fluent communicators. For example, the teacher may utilize the

principle of the GTM; providing explicit grammar rules to the learners in EA. Moreover, translation from the target language into the mother-tongue and vice versa; is another important principle of the GTM which can be used in Eclectic Approach classroom also because explaining the form of the language and enabling the learner to comprehend and translate into the target language and vice versa are some of the effective tools for teaching not only the foreign language, but also if the target language was a second language. Some aspects of the Communicative Language Teaching, such as role-play activities, pair work, group work, etc. can be very useful in EA also as they help to develop learners' communicative competence. Direct Method techniques which teach through demonstration, realia, concrete objects, etc. can be very useful in EA as well. Moreover, the Audio-lingual Method principle which emphasizes on accurate pronunciation from the very beginning, practicing the language contextually again and again and providing sufficient training in listening skills are very useful in EA, too. Some principles of Suggestopedia also such as emphasis on learners' mental aspects by eradicating fear, nervousness, tension and frustration and then fostering a cheerful, bright and colorful learning environment can be of much help in EA also. Thus, the advantages of various methods and approaches can be mobilized to be used in Eclectic Approach.

Thus, the advantages of EA can be enumerated as

follows:

- EA encourages teachers to opt for various methods and approaches and select from them what suits their teaching purpose and context. Thus, EA gives a chance to the teacher to derive various techniques and procedures from various methods.
- EA facilitates the adoption of multiple tasks derived from various methods and approaches.
- EA teacher creates an amalgam of teaching techniques and procedures that helps him to conduct the teaching session according to the circumstances and the available teaching materials.
- EA serves the needs of a wide range of language learners who may need to learn a wide variety of skills and, in this regard, different approaches are useful for teaching various aspects of language skills.
- EA creates high interaction in the classroom, encourages lively learning and produce fast results.

Disadvantages of the EA

Although the EA was welcomed by many scholars, there was a considerable opposition to the term 'eclecticism' itself because of its unprincipled nature. Criticizing Eclectic Approach, Stern, H. H. (1983), says that "it does not offer any guidance on what basis and by what principles aspects of different methods can be selected and combined." In fact, constructing a 'principled eclectic' method is not something easy for all

teachers. Eclectic pedagogy carries some drawbacks with it as its implementation in the classroom is not as smooth as it is described in theory. Most of the time, eclecticism cannot maintain the standard of principled synthesis of sound ideas in the classroom and as a result, it often turns, as Kumaravadivelu, (1994), says into an “unsystematic, unprincipled, and uncritical pedagogy.”

In the era of eclecticism, Bell's (2007), claims that methods still pervade teachers' practices. Many teachers may claim that their teaching methodology is eclectic though Eclectic Approach does not provide any concrete framework for teachers on which they can construct their own pedagogy. What they usually do is that they, randomly, combine some techniques and procedures from various methods and label it 'Eclectic Approach'. Thus, in the name of eclecticism, teachers resort to a set of blended methods instead of extracting principles and criteria from them and combining the best procedures and techniques of those method to suit the target lesson. Hence, the concept of EA was always misconceived and viewed in terms of just borrowing techniques, procedures and activities, randomly and without any criteria, from various methods and approaches, amalgaming them in a haphazard manner and then using them in teaching the target language. This state of the absence of criteria is confirmed by Stern, H. H. (1992), who says: “The weakness of the eclectic position is that it offers no criteria according to which we can determine which the

best theory is, nor does it provide any principles by which to include or exclude features that form part of existing theories and practices. The choice is left to the individual's intuitive judgement and is, therefore, too broad and too vague to be satisfactory as a theory in its own right." Thus, Eclecticism was criticized due to unsystematic, random, incoherent and uncritical nature of using activities that lack philosophical and theoretical basis. Kumaravadivelu, (1994), criticize the Eclectic Approach for its lack of guidelines. In his words, "eclecticism at the classroom level invariably degenerates into an unsystematic, unprincipled, and uncritical pedagogy because teachers with very little professional preparation to be eclectic in a principled way have little option but to randomly put together a package of techniques from various methods and label it eclectic."

Thus, the use of eclecticism does not mean just to mix up procedures, techniques and activities which have been taken, randomly, from different methods and approaches and apply them in the classroom. This means that EA is not mere a matter of putting together a group of techniques, procedures and activities which are taken from various methods and approaches in a random manner and then using them to teach the target language. The mixture must have some philosophical backgrounds, theoretical basis and systematic and principled relation among its various components. The mixture should have some meaning when the teacher applies it in different

teaching/learning activities. It means that the techniques and procedures from different methods should not be selected randomly, but they must be selected in a principled way on the basis of proper analysis of their suitability in view of the contextual realities, the status of the target language, learners' age and needs as well as other considerations that may influence the whole process of teaching/learning.

Teachers with no or very little professional preparation wish to be eclectic in a principled way which is practically impossible. Therefore, it seems that only qualified and well-trained teachers can become, truly, eclectic. This means that teachers who do not have a deep theoretical thinking about the advantages and drawbacks of various methods and approaches cannot opt for Eclectic Approach.

Therefore, Brown, H. D. (1994), notes that "theoretical eclecticism is suspicious on logical and theoretical grounds and without principles, eclecticism is likely to fall into a state of arbitrariness." Weidemann, A. (2001), is possibly right when he states, "the argument that emerges against eclecticism is perhaps more about the dangers of an unprincipled eclecticism than anything else." Weidemann, A. (2001), notes the following disadvantages of the Eclectic Approach:

(a) It cuts teachers off from a reconsideration of their professional practices. In a word, it discourages them to reflect upon their teaching. They have made up their

minds; they will use anything that works which can obtain results and is safe from ideological excesses.

(b) Adopting the eclectic approach can be unsafe as a teacher may fall victim of the methodological baggage that comes with it.

(c) Mixing all manner of methods and approaches may result in gathering in one's teaching arsenal; but using such a mixed bag can lead to all kinds of conflicts.

(d) When introduced to new methods and techniques, teachers, in their haste to integrate these into their traditional styles of teaching forget about the rationale for the techniques altogether.

(e) If an innovative technique is used only occasionally, and mixed in with other (potentially contradictory ones), the effect of the new is diluted.

Post-method Condition

Background

The history of English language teaching witnessed a series of attempts to develop effective and ideal methods that would promote the efficiency of language teaching/learning in all contexts and all times. In fact, a cursory look into the history of teaching approaches and methods will prove this fact. During the 17th. and 18th. centuries, many attempts were made in search for effective techniques and procedures for teaching languages. It is claimed there was a search for teaching/learning methods when learning a foreign language meant learning Greek or Latin; the classical languages. Learners were engaged in studying the grammar of the target language and translating it into their mother tongue. Consequently, Grammar-Translation Method (GTM) came into existence.

As the period of classical languages has started disappearing, English became a dominant language in European countries where GTM had been fully developed, practiced and reigned for a long time. Brown, H. D. (2002), says, “In the century spanning the mid-1880s to the mid-1980s, the language teaching profession was involved in what many pedagogical experts would call a search. The search was for a single, ideal method

generalizable across wide varying audiences that would successfully teach students a foreign language in the classroom. There was a search for finding a single and ideal method that would aid teaching English language in the classroom. Historical accounts of the profession tend, therefore, to describe a succession of methods, each of which is more or less discarded in due course as a new method takes its place.”

However, GTM was criticized for not having a theoretical basis. Consequently, Direct Method (DM) was introduced after the first quarter of the 20th. century as a reaction against GTM. Although DM seemed to be very different from GTM, nevertheless, critics believed that the DM also suffered from weak theoretical foundations and was difficult to adopt or implement in all teaching contexts.

By the mid of the 1950s, the Audiolingual Method (ALM) was established on the basis of behaviorist habit formation and structural linguistics. It occupied the teaching stage for some time till the end of 1960s. However, this method also lost its popularity because of its failure to teach long-term communicative proficiency for learners in different learning situations.

The ELT profession has undergone dramatic changes which appeared in many shapes from 1960s to the beginning of the 21st. century. With the decline of structuralism in linguistics and behaviorism in psychology at the end of the 1960s, particular attention

was directed towards the so-called Communicative Language Teaching (CLT). In this regard, Saengboon, S. (2010), believed that the 1980s was marked as the milestone of 'soft revolution' and what Stern, H. H. (1985), calls the 'method boom' which led to the emergence of most of methods when language teaching experts like Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (1986) and Nunan, D. (1991), began to criticize the long-practiced GTM and Audio-lingual methods and they proposed a modern teaching method that is called CLT.

During 1970s and 1980s a significant shift in language teaching occurred due to the concept of CLT and other methods and approaches which rotate in the orbit of what can be called Communicativism. Consequently, there was a movement from conventional methods such as GTM, DM and ALM, etc. to more innovative methods as Communicative Language Teaching (CLT), Silent Way Method (SWM), Suggestopedia, Total Physical Response (TPR), Community Language Learning (CLL), etc. There were both language-centered methods such as Audiolingualism (ALM) Total Physical Response (TPR), etc. and learner-centered methods such as Community Language Learning (CLL), Suggestopedia, Silent Way, Content-Based Instruction (CbI) Task-based Language Teaching (TbLT), etc. All these approaches and methods advocated the communicative and functional use of language for meaningful purposes.

As it is clear, many methods and approaches with

their prescribed techniques and procedures came into existence to add to the bulk of the existing theorization which has already filled up the field of language teaching. Each new method developed on the failure or the demise of the old one. In fact, there has been a cyclical pattern of the introduction of new methods, with a rate of a new method in about every quarter of a century. This proves that there was a continuous search for the best and ideal method that could meet the needs of teachers and which can be made 'generalizable' and applicable in all time and across various contexts. Brown, H. D. (2007), portrays the continuous changes of methods as the "changing winds and shifting sands of language teaching." Brown, H. D. (2007), says, "By the early 1990s it was readily apparent that we didn't need a new method. We needed, instead, to get on with the business of unifying our approach to language teaching and designing effective tasks and techniques that were informed by that approach."

These continuous changes in language teaching methods throughout history and the search for a best method were signs of the fact that theoreticians were unsatisfied with the teaching/learning outcome. This means that theoreticians failed to find the best method that suits all contexts and times. The only thing in which theoreticians were successful was that they surrounded teachers with heaps of theorizations and forced teachers to follow them blindly.

Nevertheless, the new teaching methods and approaches could not satisfy all teaching contexts. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006b), asserts that these communicative approaches still have problems and are inadequate in addressing the contextual issues. In fact, the set of methods and approaches which shared communicative derive were found to be far away from local linguistic, educational, cultural, and socio-political particularities. As far as CLT is concerned, it came with its cultural luggage and baggage and many other disadvantages that made it a failure in many teaching/learning situations. Therefore, scholars like Celce-Murcia M., Dörnyei Z. and Thurrell S. (1997), wonder “whether it makes any sense to talk about CLT at all.”

Even the attempt to go eclectic by amalgaming different methods and approaches could not provide a solution to the problems and challenges related to the adoption of suitable techniques and procedures of teaching the target language in all teaching/learning contexts and situations. It means that Eclectic Approach itself also came with its own complications of implementation. It seems that the whole teaching circles have come into crash with the very concept of methods and approaches which made them to ask themselves as why do they, blindly, follow theorizations about methods?

Why Did Teachers Follow Methods Blindly?

During the reign of the conventional methods, procedural or practical knowledge of the teacher was considered inferior to theoretical knowledge of theoreticians who theorize for teachers and the teachers must follow them without questioning. It means that theoreticians were highly esteemed and valued by teaching circles. Whatever theoreticians say used to be taken for granted whereas teachers' procedural and practical knowledge about teaching/learning were marginalized.

Moreover, avoidance of risks of being innovative in the process of teaching or generating ones' own practical and procedural applications has been the main reason behind the adoption and use of those ready methods generated by theoreticians. In conventional approaches, it is claimed that teachers face implementation problems, but they do not give much attention to those problems as they were not handled by the theoreticians who provided the theoretical package of the cooked-method. Teachers used to stick to those prescribed methods and textbooks which were produced on the basis of the ready method to ensure that contents and techniques are abiding by the prescribed conventional and methodological frameworks and standards. Thus, teaching the target language has been carried out under the totalitarian and strict control of methods which dictated how a language must be taught. Nevertheless, teachers failed to implement theories

prescribed by theoreticians. Therefore, theoreticians' theorizing abilities seemed to have got bankrupt and they seemed to have gone to conduct a coup against the concept of method itself. A wave of criticism was poured by theoreticians themselves upon method.

Harsh Criticism against Methods

The inefficiency of each language teaching method in fulfilling the needs of all types of learners in all learning contexts in achieving success in the target language learning has led to questioning the whole concept of method. Actually, such questioning of the concept of method started even in the mid of the 20th century. The first researcher who attempted to challenge the concept of method was Mackey, (1965), who considered that the meaning of the word 'method' itself is obscure and restrictive.

In the end of 1980s and the beginning of 1990s, the notion of methods came under much criticism. Many scholars, theoreticians and researchers have questioned and criticized the concept of method for its all-purpose-fit claims. They began to express their dissatisfaction with the methods and criticize the endless tendency to search for an ideal method. They tried to redefine or reconsider the whole concept of method. It was considered that method was intended to be blindly followed without giving any consideration to contexts such as local and contextual factors. Thus, the top-down criticism leveled

against the method is that methods are too prescriptive and teachers do not seem to have any voice or hand in what and how to teach through them. Within the framework of methods and approach, Shohamy, E. (2004), says that teachers are considered as ‘servants of the system’ and they prepare learners for exams by just “implementing the testing policies of central agencies with no power and authority to resist.”

The perpetual search for the best method was sarcastically termed by Stern, H. H. (1985), as “century-old obsession” with methods. The obsession with methods tortured teachers rather than helped them. Stern, H. H. (1983), says that “The conceptualization of language teaching has a long, fascinating, but rather tortuous history.” In fact, the harmful effects of sticking to methods can be observed in the roles of teachers and learners. Both were mentally arrested in the process of teaching and learning without reaping any satisfactory results at the end.

Researchers such as Prabhu, N. S. (1987); Nunan, D. (1991); Holliday, A. (1994a/b); Li, D. (1998); Canagarajah, S. (1999); Widdowson, H. G. (2003) and Bax, S. (2003), showed that the practical implementation of methods could be problematic in terms of their adaptability and acceptability. Moreover, many other researchers in the field such as Allwright, R. L. (1991); Clarke, M. A. (1994); Canagarajah, S. (2002); Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994); Pennycook, A. (1989);

Prabhu, N. S. (1990); Widdowson, H. G. (1990); Brown, H. D. (1991); Clarke, M. A. and Silberstein, S. (1998) and Richards, J. C. (1990), have criticized the concept of method itself and called for departing its restrictive frames. Allwright, R. L. (1991), warns language teachers against “the uncritical acceptance of untested methods.” Brown, H. D. (2002), thinks that methods are not based on empirical study as they are too “artful and intuitive.” Stern, H. H. (1985), considers methods as unproductive and misguided. Kumaravadevelu, B. (2001), sarcastically considers method to have “a magical hold on us.” Clarke, M. A. (1983), considered method as “a label without substance.” Cattell, A. G. (2009), says that it has been proved that “one method cannot be appropriate for every teacher and every learner in every time and every place.” Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), state that methods have a top-down and prescribed nature which give little room for teachers’ own personal teaching style and their learners’ needs. Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), say, “Some approaches and methods are unlikely to be widely adopted because they are difficult to understand and use, lack clear practical application, require special training, are not readily compatible with local traditions and practices, and necessitate major changes in teacher’s practices and beliefs.” Richards, J. C. (1985), argues that “the important issues are not which method to adopt but how to develop procedures and instructional activities that will enable program objectives

to be attained.”

It means that the naïve understanding of the concept of method has been criticized. Criticizing the backward understanding of practitioners of the concept of method Pennycook, A. (1989), says, “We still commonly refer to methods in terms of Anthony’s earlier understanding. For most researchers and language teachers, a method is a set of theoretically unified classroom techniques though to be generalizable across a wide variety of contexts and audience.” Pennycook, A. (1989), adds that “The Method construct that has been the predominant paradigm used to conceptualize teaching not only fails to account adequately for these historical conditions, but also is conceptually inconsistent, conflating categories and types at all levels and failing to demonstrate intellectual rigor. It is also highly questionable whether so-called methods ever reflected what was actually going on in classrooms.” Pennycook, A. (1989), argued that methods actually serve the dominant power structures in society, leading to “a de-skilling of the role of teachers, and greater institutional control over classroom practice.” Pennycook, A. (1989), describes the concept of method as invalid and prescriptive rather than descriptive. He explains the political reasons to be skeptical about methods. For him, methods are reflections of a particular view of the world and are rooted in unequal power relationships. He considers that method favors Western approaches to

learning over non-Western practices, as methods have generally originated in the U.S.A. or the U.K. and they been exported around the world. He argued that through the 1980s, the gist of method was considered and criticized because of its “positivist, progressivist, and patriarchal” aspect of the linear improvement of the TESOL practices. According to Prabhu, N. S. (1990), because of the variations in language teaching contexts such as social situation, educational organization, teacher-related and learner-related factors, he considers that there was no ‘best method’. According to Prabhu, N. S. (1990), in view of teaching methods and approaches it is a widely accepted fact that there is no best method. Prabhu, N. S. (1990), says that if teachers are asked as why there is no best method, the answer will probably be “Because it all depends.”

Thus, there have been a lot of changes of attitudes towards methods from 1990 onward. These changes according to Crandall, J. A. (2000), resulted in “a shift from transmission, product-oriented theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching, and teacher learning.” This, in turn, has paved the way for a more democratic approach to teaching. Akbari, R. (2004), sums it up as follows: “the shift in paradigm is due to the change of scope observed in modern language teaching literature and concern for disciplines and issues previously regarded as irrelevant by

both practitioners and theoreticians.”

All these theoretical misconception and practical complications have consolidated anti-method thinking. Criticizing methods Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003b), says, “Not anchored in any specific learning and teaching context, and caught up in the whirlwind of fashion, methods tend to wildly drift from one theoretical extreme to the other.” Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), has gone to the extent of considering method to have “little theoretical validity and even less practical utility.” According to Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), criticism of the concept of method is that no method or approach can be implemented in the purest form in the actual classroom because they are “not derived from classroom experience and experimentation but are artificially transplanted into the classroom and, as such, far removed from classroom reality.” According to Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006b), methods have limiting and limited effects on language teachers and learners. They fail to give the teachers situation-specific suggestions because they are artificially transplanted into the classroom although they are alien to classroom realities. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), stated that methods do not always provide different pathways to language learning and teaching since there is considerable overlap in theory and practice on many occasions. Thus, a

completely new method is not always a variation of an existing method. It is just presented with a new taxonomy or, with what Rivers, W. M. (1991), describes as “the fresh paint of a new terminology that camouflages their fundamental similarity.” Thus, methods and approaches, throughout the history, displayed nothing except theorizations that failed to lend their real and tangible fruits. Therefore, a scholar like Richards, J. C. (2001), has gone to the extent of considering the past history of methods as an ‘embarrassment’. While Allwright, R. L. (1991), considered the concept of method as insignificant. Allwright, R. L. (1991), gives four reasons why he describes the concept of method as insignificant:

- it is built on seeing differences where similarities may be more important, since methods that are different in abstract principle seem to be far less so in classroom practice; it simplifies unhelpfully a highly complex set of issues, for example seeing similarities among learners when differences may be more important;
- it diverts energies from potentially more productive concerns, since time spent learning how to implement a particular method is time not available for such alternative activities as classroom task design;
- it breeds a brand loyalty which is unlikely to be helpful to the profession, since it fosters pointless rivalries on essentially irrelevant issues; it breeds complacency, if, as it surely must, it conveys the impression that answers

have indeed been found to all the major methodological questions in our profession;

- it offers a 'cheap' externally derived sense of coherence for language teachers, which may itself inhibit the development of a personally 'expensive,' but ultimately far more valuable, internally derived sense of coherence.

Therefore, Allwright, R. L. (1991), brings six arguments against Method:

- a) it is built on difference where resemblance can be more important, as classroom techniques may be common to several Methods;
- b) it does not address teaching difficulties such as different learning styles or the students' wants and needs;
- c) it may divert the teachers' energy from classroom task design;
- d) it involves brand loyalty, which may lead to pointless rivalry;
- e) it breeds complacency as it may convey the impression that answers have been found to all major methodological concerns;
- f) the Method offers a false impression of coherence which may inhibit the teachers' self-development.

Here are some reasons why are methods no longer exist in the language teaching journey through time according to Brown, H. D. (2002):

1. Methods are prescriptive, assuming too much about a context before the actual context has even been identified.

They are overgeneralized in their potential application to practical situations.

2. Generally, methods are quite distinctive at the early, beginning stages of a language course and rather indistinguishable from each other at later stages. In the first few unique sets of experiences in their small circles of translated language whispered in their ears. But within a matter of weeks, such as classroom can look like any other learner-centered curriculum.

3. It was once thought that methods could be empirically tested by scientific quantification to determine which one is -best. Language pedagogy cannot ever be so clearly verified by empirical validation.

4. Recent work in the power and politics of English language teaching has demonstrated that methods become vehicle of -linguistic imperialism targeting the disempowered.

Finocchiaro, M. (1971), also disapproved the one-dimensional, method-oriented practices. He called for teachers to show more creativity in the process of teaching. Clarke, M. A. (1994), called for a 'complete re-orientation of the profession' of teaching.

Thus, it can be said that the 20th. century has witnessed the rise and fall of different language teaching methods and approaches as they all failed to address the particularities presented by learners from different cultural backgrounds and various teaching/learning contexts. The revolution against, solely, following a

single method or approach in language teaching was very strong. By the end of the 20th century, the mainstream language teaching no longer preserved methods as a crucial factor in determining success or failure in language teaching. The focus in the new millennium has been on the contextualization of classroom tasks, activities, procedures and techniques which are in consonant with what the teacher knows about language teaching/learning in his context and which also keep with the dynamics of the classroom itself.

A Call for Contextualization of Pedagogy

As it is clear from the above handling, there was call to depart methods and approaches entirely and leave the matter to the judgment and selection of the teachers according to their own teaching/learning contexts. In fact, the concept of local context started preoccupying the minds of the theorizers of language teaching. Regarding these contextualized methods Brown, H. D. (2000), says, “virtually all language teaching methods make the oversimplified assumption that what language teachers ‘do’ in the classroom can be conventionalized into a set of procedures that fits all contexts.” Commenting on the contextualization of methods, Allwright, R. L. (2000), suggests that it is better for teachers to carry principles of language teaching from context to context than carrying principles across contexts. Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), was right when

he stated the following about the nature of methods: “Methods themselves are decontextualised. They describe a certain ideal based on certain beliefs. They deal with what, how and why. They say little or nothing about to who/whom, when and where.” Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), went on saying that “there can be no method for everyone...methods should not be exported from one situation to another.”

Thus, there was a general tendency to localize the pedagogies of teaching and throw the whole issue on the shoulders of the teachers. Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), puts it this way: “a method is decontextualised. How a method is implemented in the classroom is going to be affected not only by who the teacher is, but also by who the students are, their and the teachers’ expectations, of appropriate social roles, the institutional constraints and demand, and factors connected to the wider socio-cultural context in which instruction takes place.” Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), added, “Decisions that teachers make are often affected by the exigencies in the classroom rather than by methodological considerations.” Nacino-Brown, R., et al. (1992), saying also seems to pour in the same stream of contextualization. They say that it is necessary for a teacher to use different procedures of teaching to suit varying situations and contexts. Teachers should not bind themselves to a specific teaching principle, rather, they should find out what is relevant to their own context. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), noted

that “global principles [are] for general guidance but their implications need to be worked out for local everyday practice.” As Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), gives more consideration to classroom realities, he criticizes conventional methods for not being context-sensitive and giving unnecessary importance to theorizers in pedagogical decision-making process. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006b), is of the view of addressing “local needs, creating local pedagogies to address students’ difficulties.”

Teachers themselves seem to have reached to the conclusion that just recycling and reusing the same ideas belonging to one method or another is counter-productive and fruitless. Language teachers reached to a conclusion that teaching does not depend only on the use of a method and applying its prescribed principles and techniques sincerely, but also on bridging the gap between what has been theorized within the frames of methods and approaches and what is usually applicable and reflected in the classroom.

Educationalists also have almost stopped searching for the so-called best method or forcing teacher to follow a specific method. Consequently, the period of methods came to an end and reflective practice in teaching has emerged as a response to the call for a substitute for the concept of method. Thus, the all changes in methods throughout the history seemed to be nonsense and therefore they crumbled down.

Such criticisms made Allwright, R. L. (2003), go to the extent of announcing the ‘Death of Method’. Brown, H. D. (2002), has just used figures of speech suggesting death such as “laying to rest”, “requiem”, and “interred methods” to draw attention to the fact that the method has lost its significance and cannot be used as a viable means in teaching languages.

Thus, scholars such as Allwright, R. L. (1991); Clarke, M. A. (1994); Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994); Pennycook, A. (1989); Prabhu, N. S. (1990); Widdowson, H. G. (1990); Brown, H. D. (1991); Clarke, M. A. and Silberstein, S. (1998); Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001); Pennycook, A. (1989); etc. have not only cautioned language-teaching practitioners against the uncritical acceptance of untested methods, but they have also written against the very concept of method itself. Even the latest jargoning about Communicative Language Teaching theories could not give any tangible results in the field of language teaching nor could it save methods from facing their inevitable end. This made scholars like Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei Z. and Thurrell S. (1997), admit that “the development of language teaching theory has arrived at a post-method condition, which requires a reconsideration of some of the metaphors used to describe methodological issues” and according to them it has provided “a coherent enough framework for teachers to make it unnecessary to use higher-order terms such as CLT.” Thus, the multidirectional criticisms

against the concept of method paved the way for Post-method Condition (PmC) to appear and present itself.

The Arrival of PmC

As it is clear, the wide-spread dissatisfaction with the prescriptive nature methods, the discontent with the notion of method and its failure to create an all-encompassing construct that satisfies all teaching contexts made Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), claims that there should be an alternative to method rather than an alternative method as methods were considered to be incomplete construct. In 1994, Kumaravadivelu, B. identified and introduced the concept of 'Post-method Condition.' which was a result of the as Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), "dissatisfaction connected to the traditional concept of method." Thus, the notion of post-method emerged as an exemplar of critical language pedagogy to provide possible solutions to the problems that language teaching faces while using methods. Post-method emphasizes transcending the rigid notion of method. According to Akbari, R. (2008), one dramatic recent shift which has not been unanimously agreed upon among scholars is the emergence of the "post-method condition." Crandall, J. A. (2000), describes this shift from method to post-method as "a shift from transmission, product-oriented theories to constructivist, process-oriented theories of learning, teaching, and teacher learning."

Thus, Post-method Condition declares the death of

methods and suggests new principles. Comparing between method and Post-method, Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), says that method consists “of a single set of theoretical principles derived from feeder disciplines and a single set of classroom procedures directed at classroom teachers” whereas post-method allows the teacher to devise teaching procedures and principles by depending on prior and experiential knowledge and/or certain strategies. In other words, the concept of method involves theorizers in constructing “knowledge-oriented” theories of pedagogy whereas post-method, according to Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994,), involves teacher in constructing “classroom-oriented” theories of practice. Thus, post-method allows language teachers to develop their own pedagogy that suits their local teaching context. The concept of pedagogy proposed by thinkers such as Paulo, Freire and Kumaravadivelu, B. makes room for some alternatives which can be used by teachers to ‘particularize’ their practices so as to meet their local and contextual needs and individual goals.

To clarify its concept, post-method condition offers three possible frameworks to language teachers who want to follow a post-method approach in their classrooms. They are:

- Kumaravadivelu’s B. (1994), Ten Macrostrategic framework;
- Stern’s H. H. (1992), Three-dimensional framework, and

- Allwright's R. L. (2000), Exploratory Practice framework.

These frameworks provide teachers with important principles that are applicable, adaptable, generalizable, open-ended, descriptive, theory-neutral, method-neutral and not restrictive as well. In fact, these principles make teachers aware of their teaching process and enable them to justify it according to a conceptual frame of reference of their own.

The Concept of Post-method

The concept of post-method is a fairly new phenomenon in ELT. It was generally based on the idea of post-modernism. It emerged to free teachers from the method-based restrictions and shackles of teaching approaches. The term 'post-method' was first coined by Pennycook, A. in 1989 and was later on studied by many other scholars like Kumaravadivelu, Allwright R. L., Stern H. H., Prabhu N. S., etc.

Identifying a major shift from methods to post-method condition, Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), declares, "Having witnessed how methods go through endless cycles of life, death, and rebirth, we now seem to have reached a state of heightened awareness-an awareness that as long as we are caught up in the web of method, we will continue to get entangled in an unending search for an unavailable solution, an awareness that such a search drives us to continually recycle and repackage the same

old ideas and an awareness that nothing short of breaking the cycle can salvage the situation. This awareness is fast creating what might be called a post-method condition.”

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), uses Post-method Condition in a much broader sense. He argues that post-method condition “drives us to streamline our teacher education by refiguring the reified relationship between theory and practice.” According to Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), the post-method condition emphasizes three interrelated attributes that can be listed as follows:

- (a) an alternative to the concept of method,
- (b) teacher autonomy and reflection, and,
- (c) principled pragmatism.

First of all, finding an alternative to method rather than searching for an alternative method suggests a need to look beyond the notion of method itself. As in the case of other terms prefixed by the word ‘post’, post-method refers to a revision of the concept of method and points not to a blend of methods as suggested by Eclectic Approach which utterly failed, but to construct tenets and techniques which would result in, as Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), puts it, an “alternative to method rather than an alternative method.”

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), says, “The post-method condition is a sustainable state of affairs that compels us to fundamentally restructure our view of language teaching and teacher education. It urges us to review the character and content of classroom teaching in

all its pedagogical and ideological perspectives. It drives us to streamline our teacher education by refiguring the reified relationship between theory and practice.” This was the beginning to search for a suitable pedagogy for post-method condition.

Post-method Pedagogy

The new trend preferred the term ‘pedagogy’ to be used instead of method. The language teaching is now in the post-method. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001), gives more importance to ‘pedagogy’ and defines it by saying, “I use the term pedagogy in a broad sense to include not only issues pertaining to classroom strategies, ... L2 education.” Being true initiator of post-method, Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), maintains, “If the conventional concept of method entitles theorizers to construct knowledge-oriented theories of pedagogy, the post-method condition empowers practitioners to construct classroom-oriented theories of practice. If the concept of method authorizes theorizers to centralize pedagogic decision making, the post-method condition enables practitioners to generate location-specific, classroom-oriented innovative practices.” He considers post-method pedagogy as an alternative to method so that teachers can create their teaching experiences as a bottom-up approach in which they theorize what they do and practice what they theorize. Thus, teachers’ knowledge of the conventional methods can construct

their own methods and thus, they can act as evaluators, observers, critical thinkers, theorizers and practitioners. In fact, post-method pedagogy makes teachers capable of looking at language teaching/learning through a new perspective. It helps teachers to realize their real potentialities as effective practitioners. According to Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), “The task of the post-method teacher educator is to create conditions for prospective teachers to acquire necessary authority and autonomy that will enable them to reflect on and shape their own pedagogic experiences, and in certain cases transform such experiences.” Hence, post-method teachers never adhere to a single set of teaching procedures. They adapt their teaching pedagogy in accordance with local and contextual factors. Post-method pedagogy always upholds the importance of local contexts in language teaching. It believes that there are dependencies between contextual factors and instructional methods. These factors tend to vary in different contexts. They allow teachers to create a teaching pedagogy that suits their own teaching context. Varying contexts like classroom learning, in the words of Prabhu, N. S. (1990), “as against learning through social exposure, or to the formal school system, as against private language instruction, or to relative formality in teacher-learner relations, as against informal relations, or even to teacher-fronted activities, as against group work among learners.” Cook, V. (2008), states, “an

understanding of the varying roles for language teaching in different societies and for different individuals is an important aid to teaching.” The teacher should find out which variations of contextual factors are influential as according to Prabhu, N. S. (1990), there is “indefinite variation on many dimensions, thus making it impossible to justify any instructional method for any single group of learners.”

Thus, teaching strategies and procedures which were implemented by local teachers according to their real specific situation that is based on learners’ situation are called a post-method pedagogy. The post-method pedagogy aims at constructing classroom-oriented practices and procedures rather than constructing knowledge-oriented theories which are built on method theorizing. It encourages local teachers to develop their teaching more effectively through theorizing what they do and practicing what they theorize. Therefore, while the concept of method empowers theorizers in the pedagogic decision-making process and this makes methods artificially transplanted constructs, post-method pedagogy, on the other hand, empowers teachers and enables them to construct location-specific and classroom-oriented procedures and practices. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006b), asserted that “rather than adhering to a certain set of procedures, post method teachers should adapt their approach with local and contextual factors.” As part of the call for

contextualization of the pedagogy, the post-method era according to Brown, H. D. (2007), gave rise to a focus on local issues and specific aspects, which are part of a group of learners' contexts.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), says that "post-method pedagogy recognizes teachers' prior knowledge as well as their potential to know not only how to teach but also how to act autonomously within the academic and administrative constraints imposed by institutions, curricula and textbooks" In order to deal with language teaching, local context should develop the suitable formula and post-method pedagogy should emphasize the importance of constructing context sensitive practices related to the teaching and learning environment. In this regard, post-method pedagogy emphasizes on teachers' prior knowledge which is important in making decisions related to curricula, textbooks, procedures and practices. In fact, post-method is based on some classroom-constructed and principled procedures derived from the teachers' prior experiential knowledge and/or certain strategies and is more a 'documentation and systematization' of the classroom practices designed according to the needs' analysis of the learners. Those principled procedures made post-method theorizer to come with Principled Pragmatism (PP) as against Principled Eclecticism (PE).

PP as against PE

When EA failed to deliver the task of teaching the target language, researchers and methodologists called for what is called as ‘Principled Eclecticism’ (PE). The term, ‘Principled Eclecticism’ which was used by Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), and Mellow, J. D. (2002), can be described as a desirable, coherent, pluralistic approach to language teaching. PE entails using diverse learning activities that have different characteristics in response to learner needs.

PE challenges the historical conception of a single method which claims to be cure-all prescriptions. It involved using different language attitudes that have different characteristics in response to learners’ needs. However, PE; amalgaming of methods, could not guarantee the complete denial of method. Therefore, it has been criticized by Kumaravadivelu, B. and several other researchers such as Prabhu, N. S. (1990); Stern, H. H. (1992); Widdowson, H. G. (1990), for not having a systematic framework and failing to give solution to the problems of language teaching.

Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), underscores the weaknesses of eclecticism for its lack of criteria and its limited relationship with the concept of method. He proposes what he calls ‘Principled Pragmatism’ (PP). Handling PP, Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), explains “how classroom learning can be shaped and managed by teachers as a result of informed teaching and critical

appraisal.” Thus, PP is different from Eclecticism. It emerged in post-method pedagogy when Eclecticism and PE failed to overcome the constraints of the conventional concept of method.

PP always upholds the pragmatics of pedagogy where, according to Widdowson, H. G. (1990), “the relationship between theory and practice, ideas and their actualization, can only be realized within the domain of application, that is, through the immediate activity of teaching.” For this task, a framework was necessary to be developed to provide a pedagogic help to practitioners.

Post-method Strategic Framework

The reflections on Principled Pragmatism and the need for a pedagogy that addresses the triad teacher-students-social context led to the proposal by Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), of a “strategic framework for L2 teaching” or what Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003b), named in another text as “Macrostrategic framework.” According to Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003a), “practicing and prospective teachers need a framework that can enable them to develop the knowledge, skill, attitude, and autonomy necessary to devise for themselves a systematic, coherent, and relevant personal theory of practice.” The post-method strategic framework for language teaching consists of macro-strategies and micro-strategies. Kumaravadivelu’s, B. (1994), ten macrostrategies framework are as follows:

1. Maximizing the Scope of Learning Opportunities: By facilitating teaching and making it as a process of creating and utilizing learning opportunities. In this framework, the teacher is considered, both, as the creator of learning opportunities for his learners and the utilizer of learning opportunities created by learners.
2. Minimizing Perceptual Mismatches: This strategy minimizes the potential perceptual mismatches between intentions and interpretations of the student, the teacher, and the teacher educator.
3. Facilitating Negotiated Interaction: This strategy aims to develop meaningful student and student, student and teacher classroom interaction where students are encouraged to propose topic and initiate talk and not merely react or respond.
4. Promoting Learner Autonomy: This strategy deals with making students learn how to learn, adjusting them with the means necessary to self-direct and self-monitor their own process of learning.
5. Fostering Language Awareness: This strategy consists of any attempt to draw learners' attention to the formal and functional properties of their L2 in order to increase the degree of explicitness required to promote L2 learning.
6. Activating Intuitive Heuristics: This strategy involves the potential of providing rich textual data to help students infer and internalize the underlying rules governing grammatical usage and communicative use.

7. Contextualizing Linguistic Input: This strategy focuses on how language usage uses are formed by linguistic, extralinguistic, situational and extra-situational contexts.
8. Integrating Language Skills: This strategy deals with the need to holistically integrate the language skills in which they are traditionally separated and sequenced as listening, speaking, reading, and writing.
9. Ensuring Social Relevance: This strategy stresses the need for the teacher to be aware to the societal, political, economic, and educational environment in which second/foreign language learning and teaching take place.
10. Raising Cultural Consciousness: This strategy focuses on treating the students as cultural informants so that they are encouraged to engage in a process of classroom participation that puts a premium on their power/knowledge.

The above ten macrostrategies proposed by Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), seek to provide a general mechanism for teachers to start constructing their own teaching theories and pedagogies. In doing so, Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), highlights the importance of the role of the teachers as strategic explorers and thinkers who can, as Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), puts it:

- reflect on the specific needs, wants, situations, and processes of learning and teaching;
- stretch their knowledge, skill, and attitude to stay informed and involved;
- design and use appropriate microstrategies to maximize

learning potential in the classroom;

- monitor and evaluate their ability to react to myriad situations in meaningful ways.

Macrostrategies and Microstrategies

The aforementioned ten macro-strategic framework that is constructed in post-method pedagogy are subject to change. They are derived from historical, theoretical, empirical, and experiential insights in relation to second/foreign language learning and teaching. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003b), describes the macro-strategies as general guiding principles for classroom teaching. They are a general plan, a broad guideline which enables teachers to conduct their situation-specific lessons. They lead the teachers to generate their own location-specific or classroom procedures. They enable teachers to search and discover their own context-sensitive micro-strategies.

Those macrostrategies are put into practice and implemented in the classroom through micro-strategies which are designed to realize the goals of a particular macro-strategy. Micro-strategies refer to, as Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), says, “classroom procedures that are designed to realize the objectives of a particular macrostrategies. Any type of microstrategy depends on the local learning and teaching situation. The possibilities are endless.” Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), stated micro-strategies are associated with different local

situations. They are conditioned by the national and local language planning, curricular goals, institutional resources and learners' needs, lacks and even their current level of language knowledge/competence and many other possible factors. A macro-strategy may have many micro-strategies. As for detailed micro-strategies following each macro-strategy, Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), mentions:

- (1) opportunities outside classroom,
- (2) learner training and learner perception,
- (3) intensive teacher-learner communication,
- (4) learner autonomy and learning preferences,
- (5 and 6) language use and language awareness,
- (7) contextualizing linguistic input,
- (8) utilizing all sorts of raw materials,
- (9 and 10) ensuring social and cultural relevance.

In fact, Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), has demonstrated a comprehensive picture of how to design valid micro-strategies in a specific context under the guidance of each macro-strategy which is accomplished through organizing pedagogic parameters.

The Pedagogic Parameters

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001), says, "in search for an alternative organizing principle, the pedagogic parameters of particularity, practicality and possibility deserve serious consideration. I believe that these parameters have the potential to offer the necessary

conceptualization and contextualization based on the educational, cultural, social and political imperatives.... suppose to serve.”

Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), considered the three pedagogic parameters; namely, the pedagogic parameters of particularity, practicality and possibility as the conceptual foundation for a post-method pedagogy which is said to be both theory neutral and method neutral. They make post-method distinct from the concept of method. They have potential functions as operating principles, guiding various aspects of second or foreign language teaching.

Discussing pedagogical parameters of ‘particularity’, ‘practicality’ and ‘possibility’ as well as the pedagogic indicators of the post-method teacher and learner, Kumaravadivelu, B. suggests that a language teacher should adopt a context-sensitive pedagogic framework which will be able to respond to special characteristics of a particular learning and teaching context.

The Principle of Particularity

First of all, a methodology that is related to post-method pedagogy should be directly linked to particularity because any kind of language pedagogy must be, according to Kumaravadivelu, (2001), “relevant, must be sensitive to a particular group of teachers teaching a particular group of learners pursuing a

particular set of goals within a particular institutional context embedded in a particular sociocultural milieu.”

Thus, Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001), considers that all pedagogy is a politically-charged process in which particularity is embedded in the deep awareness of local context and situation. Kumaravadivelu's (2001), parameter of particularity, implies that theories and assumptions have to be sensitive to particular contexts. Post-method pedagogy emphasizes the key aspect of local context or what is called by Elliott, J. (1993), as “situational understanding.” It means that in the parameter of particularity, the teacher is sensitive to the local/social context to which learners belong. He reconstructs procedures and strategies in order to meet learners' interests and needs. In other words, particularity seeks to highlight a context-sensitive and location-specific nature of teaching/learning that is based on local, contextual, linguistic, social, political and cultural features.

Within the pedagogy of particularity as one of the constituents of the post-method debate, teachers are entrusted with the task of continuous exploration of their local context because, as Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001), states, “in a post-method pedagogy, any exploration is by definition context specific and has the capacity, if carried out properly, to produce situated scenarios that are ever-changing and ever-evolving.” Teachers must be involved in, as Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001), puts it, “observing their

teaching acts, evaluating their outcomes, identifying problems, finding solutions, and trying them out to see once again what works and what does not”

The concept of particularity in Kumaravadivelu’s work on post-method pedagogy is emphasized by Brown, H. D. (2007), who claims that “the best teachers always take a few calculated risks in the classroom, trying new activities here and there.” Thus, the idea of pedagogic particularity can only be constructed with a holistic understanding of specific context and improvement of that particular context. From the perspective of this parameter, achieving this pedagogic process, language policy makers and administrators should have critical awareness of local exigencies, pay attention to local contingencies, make teachers observe that their teaching practices are related to their context, assess their outcomes, locate problems, find solutions, adhere to things that go well in the classroom and lead to teaching/learning effectiveness.

The Principle of Practicality

The other parameter, which is closely related to particularity, is the pedagogy of practicality. At its core, the pedagogy of practicality highlights the relationship between theory and practice. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), says, “the parameter of practicality, then, focuses on teachers’ reflection and action, which are also based on their insights and

intuition. Through prior and ongoing experience with learning and teaching, the teachers gather an unexplained and sometimes explainable awareness of what constitutes good teaching.”

For the parameter of practicality, local teachers should themselves begin to seek avenues that will help them in teaching so that learners may be able to learn in a most successful way. Teachers should not focus on what the outside experts have to say in this regard. Thus, the principle of practicality spells out the relationship between theory and practice. It highlights the need for teachers to produce their own theory and practice. Hence, the concept of practicality gives the opportunity for teacher to analyze and assess their teaching/learning situations, consider the alternatives to improve them and then construct their own theories according to the needs of their local context.

The Principle of Possibility

The principle of possibility aims at providing a more comprehensive context for the language teaching in terms of its political accountability and socio-cultural engagement. It deals with the socio-cultural realities and socio-political experiences that participants bring to the learning environments. These experiences are said to be shaped not only by teaching/learning acts which the participants encountered in the past, but also by the social, economic and political environments which they

have been raised in.

An important argument put forward by Kumaravadivelu, D. (2001), is that policy planners, curriculum designers and textbook producers cannot assume that these experiences have the potential to change classroom practices. It is only the teacher who manages those experiences and enhances the process of teaching/learning. From this perspective, post-method pedagogy considers language teaching and learning not as holding new cultural and linguistic knowledge or as a link of struggling between the old and new identities for teachers and learners alike, but as a tool to help learners come to develop their own identity and as a vehicle to study other people and cultures. In fact, learners adopt a critical mindset towards the target language learning experiences. They attempt to acquire not only a new linguistic experience, but also more importantly a new lens to appreciate the world out there and the world inside. This is possible to be achieved only if the teacher is wholeheartedly and plausibly involved in the process of teaching. Consequently, concepts like ‘Sense of Plausibility’, ‘Three-Dimensional Framework’, ‘Reflective Practice’, ‘Exploratory Practice’ etc. tried to influence teaching practice and foster teaching professionalism.

Prabhu's Sense of Plausibility

Prabhu, N. S. (1990); one of the proponents of post-method pedagogy, highlights both the positive and negative effects of methods. He came with the idea which claims that better learning achievement can be achieved only if the teacher is wholeheartedly and plausibly involved in teaching. Thus, Kumaravadivelu's 'Principled Pragmatism' is underpinned by what Prabhu, N. S. (1990), calls a "sense of plausibility." Prabhu, N. S. (1990), says, "If the theories of language teaching (that is to say, methods) that we have at present fail to account sufficiently for the diversity in teaching contexts, we ought to try to develop a more general or comprehensive (and probably more abstract) theory to account for more of the diversity, not reject the notion of a single system of ideas and seek to be guided instead by diversity itself. Pointing to a bewildering variety of contextual factors as a means of denying the possibility of a single theory can only be a contribution to bewilderment, not to understanding." Prabhu's aim was to pull out the teacher from the routine reality which was imposed upon him by the difficulties of selecting a suitable method and put him on the track of producing fruitful teaching. He described the negative effect as 'over routinization' and the positive effect in terms of 'real' teaching. 'Real' teaching requires

a sense of true involvement on part of the teacher in teaching. That sense of involvement is termed by Prabhu as “a teacher’s sense of plausibility.” Prabhu, N. S. (1990), says that if teachers choose a method and apply it mechanically with no sense of involvement, then the method itself cannot be efficiently implemented. Teachers’ subjective understanding and operating with some personal conceptualization or perception is said to be teacher’s sense of plausibility. According to Prabhu, N. S. (1990), the enemy of good teaching is not “a bad method, but overroutinisation.” He wants to say that the sense of plausibility is hampered when teaching becomes over-routinized due to the mechanical adherence to method which makes teaching frozen, ossified and left only as schedule of routines that must be completed in anyway.

Prabhu, N. S. (1990), uses this phrase ‘sense of plausibility’ to refer to a subjective awareness of the teaching/learning context where an individual teacher creates teaching strategies, procedures and pedagogy that are effective for a particular teaching/learning context by using his perception on the particular learning context in which he teaches. The sense of plausibility emerges from teacher’s teaching experience, earlier learning experience and exposure to a number of methods while being trained as a teacher, etc. The main thing, according to Prabhu, N. S. (1990), is not “whether it implies a good or bad method but, more basically, whether the sense of plausibility is

active, alive, or operational enough to create a sense of involvement for both the teacher and the student.” Though methods have, according to Prabhu, N. S. (1990), the “power to influence- to invoke, activate, interact with, alter in some way, and generally keep alive different teachers’ differing senses of plausibility, thus helping to promote and enlarge the occurrence of ‘real’ teaching.”

According to Prabhu, N. S. the teacher is involved in a continuous renovation of the process and procedure of teaching and this is not possible without full engagement of the teacher in teaching. This involvement becomes functional when a teacher’s sense of plausibility is engaged in the teaching operation. It means that teaching can produce the best results if the teachers are wholeheartedly involved in the process of teaching and discovering a new pedagogy which has new procedures. Instructional procedures are, in the words of Prabhu, N. S. (1990), “a kind of discovery procedure for methods. That method is best, it seems to say, which results from a careful implementation of the procedure, the soundness of the method being guaranteed by the soundness of the procedure leading to it.” However, the continuous renovation of the process and procedure of teaching and rediscovering a new pedagogy is possible only if the teacher reflects upon teaching practice and increase upon self-awareness.

Reflective Practice

Further contemplation over post-method era continued to utilize different ideas and concepts to make teaching fruitful. One of these concepts was Farrell's 'Reflective Practice' which was first dealt with by the educationist John Dewey and later on the researches of researchers such as the psychologists Kurt Lewin and Jean Piaget gave further illumination to the concept. Osterman, K. F. and Kottkamp, R. B. (1993), define Reflective Practice as "a means by which practitioners can develop a greater level of self-awareness about the nature and impact of their performance, an awareness that creates opportunities for professional growth and development." Jay, J. K. and Johnson, K. L. (2002), propose a comprehensive definition of the term 'Reflective Practice'. They state, "Reflection is a process, both individual and collaborative, involving experience and uncertainty. It is comprised of identifying questions and key elements of a matter that has emerged as significant, then taking one's thought into dialogue with oneself and with others. One evaluates insights gained from that process with reference to (1) additional perspectives, (2) one's own values, experiences, and beliefs, and (3) the larger context within which the questions are raised. Through reflection, one reaches

newfound clarity, on which one bases changes in action or disposition. New questions naturally arise, and the process spirals onward.”

Farrell, T. C. (2004), says that with the help of reflective teaching “teachers can become more empowered decision makers, engaging in systematic reflections of their work by thinking, writing, and talking about their teaching; observing the acts of their own and others’ teaching; and by gauging the impact of their teaching on their students’ learning.”

According to the concept of Reflective Practice, teachers should construct their own theories according to the needs of their local context. This may be possible through continuous reflection that update teachers’ practices and enables them to reflect upon the way they do their teaching duty. If teachers are not reflective in teaching, they, as Braun, J. A. and Crumpler, T. P. (2004), put it, “will be likely to teach as they were taught and, thus, ineffective teaching strategies will be replicated.” In this sense, the local teachers construct or innovate their teaching by their experiences through their reflection. According to Sanchez, A. C. and Obando, G. (2008), “The need for constant updating is clear for teachers. With the advent of post-method trends teachers also need to reinvent themselves inside the classroom.” Braun, J. A. and Crumpler, T. P. (2004), suggest, “those who do not reflect upon their practices will be likely to teach as they were taught and thus ineffective teaching strategies will

be replicated.”

According to Crandall, J. A. (2000), reflective teaching enables teachers to “develop more informed practice, make tacit beliefs and practical knowledge explicit leading to new ways of knowing, articulating and teaching.”

Components of Reflection

According to Akbari R., Behzadpoor F. and Dadvand B. (2010), because of the vagueness of what reflection actually entails, not much has been done in order to operationalize this construct. For the purpose of developing a model for teacher reflection, an instrument consisting of five components is proposed.

1. Practical element: Practical aspects of reflection refer to different tools and procedures used and followed by the teachers. These include: journal writing, lesson reports, surveys and questionnaires, audio and video recordings, observation, action research, teaching portfolios, group discussions, analyzing critical incidents.
2. Cognitive element: This component is more related to teachers’ own professional development to accomplish different levels of reflection by doing small-scale classroom projects, attending the conferences or workshops and reading the literature.
3. Learner (Affective) element: This element involves teachers’ reflection on their learners and deals with the

ways of learners' learning, responding strategies and emotional behaviors. This tradition, according to Zeichner, K. M. and Liston, D. P. (1996), "emphasizes reflection about students, their cultural and linguistic backgrounds, thinking and understandings, their interests, and their developmental readiness for particular tasks."

4. Meta-cognitive element: In order to be a reflective practitioner, teachers should focus on their own beliefs and personality and effective reflective practice can occur with reflecting on the way they define their own practice and emotional constructs. Akbari, R. (2007), points it out as "Teachers' personality, and more specifically their affective make up, can influence their tendency to get involved in reflection and will affect their reaction to their own image resulting from reflection."
5. Critical element: According to Zeichner, K. M. and Liston, D. P. (1996), "instruction is embedded within institutional, cultural, and political contexts ... and these contexts both affect what we do and are affected but what we do." Thus, this component according to Akbari R., Behzadpoor F. and Dadvand B. (2010), focuses on socio-political aspects brought by practitioners to the classroom and reflection on political significance of their practice including the introduction of topics related to race, gender and social class. According to Larrivee, B. (2008), teachers reflect

on the moral and ethical implications and consequences of their classroom practices on students.

Stern's Three-dimensional Framework

The post-method theoreticians continued to provide theorization about the pedagogic visions that try to succeed in transcending the concept of method and its shackles. Stern, H. H. (1992), advocates for transcending the concept of method through an integrated curricular agenda. He urges language teachers not to restrict themselves by top-downs theorizations, but allow themselves to construct and achieve their own teaching objectives. Stern, H. H. (1992), proposed the Three-Dimensional Framework which is both theory neutral and method neutral as well. It focuses on various language components and how they combine into an integrated whole. It does not favor the application of restricted ends of the continuum in its principles. It suggests that practitioners should find a middle path through a framework. They are as follows:

1. The Intralingual-crosslingual Dimension

It is based on the claim of Stern, (1992), which says that “L1-L2 connection is an indisputable fact of life.” It centers around techniques that remain within the target language and target culture and take them as the frame of reference for teaching and techniques that use features of the target language and native culture, as well, for comparison purposes.

However, the intra-lingual strategy keeps the two language systems completely separate from each other whereas the cross-lingual strategy suggests that the target language is acquired and known through the use of the mother tongue of the learner. It is clear that this strategy mainly focuses on the use of the mother tongue and the target language in the classroom. However, it allows to use of the mother tongue in certain situation results in a lesson where learners can ask questions, verify the meanings and get explanations, prevent and eradicate uncertainties, give interpretation in the target language, give target language expressions equivalent of the mother tongue, etc. It means that this principle does not restrict the use of mother in the classroom and at the same time it does not give free hands to make the mother tongue dominate the teaching/learning session. It allows teachers to decide on the degree of using the mother tongue according to the level and needs of the teaching context. It seems to suggest that the cross-linguistic techniques are suitable at the initial stages of learning the target language whereas intra-lingual techniques are suitable at the advanced stages of learning the target language. Moreover, adopting the intralingual-crosslingual dimension results in enriching and expanding the stock of vocabulary and knowledge within the learner.

2. The Analytic-experiential Dimension

It involves explicit focus on formal

properties of target language as well as interactions in communication process. While analytic strategy deals with accuracy involving explicit focus on forms of language; that is grammar and vocabulary, experiential strategy on the other hand focuses on fluency by activating interaction that is based on communicative activities such as discussions, games and problem-solving tasks. Stern, H. H. (1992), points out that without analytic strategy, experiential strategy cannot be effective as they have a mutual relationship. Analytic strategy, in the words of Stern, H. H. (1992), “abstracts, decontextualizes, and isolates language phenomena or skill aspects for scrutiny, diagnosis, and practice” through mechanical drills. Such a saying seems to admit the return to teaching the grammar of the target language. It means that though there have also been various attempts to abandon the grammar from language classrooms and textbooks, but teaching circles seem to have succumbed to the reality which was expressed by Thornbury, S. (2004), who says that “if grammar ever went away, it was only very briefly and not very far.” Experiential strategy, on the other hand, emphasizes meaningful activities by getting involved in activities such as projects, games, problem-solving tasks, writing a report, discussion and giving a talk so that to develop the communicative skills of the learners.

3. The Explicit-implicit Dimension

This dimension considers conscious and unconscious attempts to learn the target language. The explicit-implicit dimension is concerned with learning a language consciously or subconsciously. Stern, H. H. (1992), argues that language can be taught both explicitly through conscious learning and implicitly through subconscious acquisition. Unlike what conventional methods dictate, this dimension does not strongly impose one end of the dimension and disregard the other end. Many conventional methods dictate that languages can be learned explicitly; more innovative ones such as Communicative Approaches tend to favor implicit learning. Stern, H. H. (1992), however, asserts that some language forms should be taught explicitly, while some others are appropriate for implicit teaching. In fact, decision on the degree of using explicit and implicit strategies depend on the language topic, the course objectives, the characteristics of the learners, the needs, learners' age, maturity and previous experience. While some forms of language are of an appropriate complexity to be presented and taught explicitly, other forms are not easy to be introduced explicitly as, in the words of Stern, H. H. (1992), "language can be much too complex to be fully described."

While the analytic strategy involves explicit focus on forms of the target language such as grammar, vocabulary, notions and functions with emphasis on

accuracy; experiential strategy is message-oriented and involves interaction in communicative contexts with emphasis on fluency of the learners in the target language. Stern, H. H. (1992), puts forward that one type of strategy cannot be effective without the other type. Therefore, both types of strategies are complementary to each other and carry utmost importance for language learners.

Allwright's Exploratory Practice

Being a post-method thinker, Allwright, R. L. contributed with his own thought about language teaching. Exploratory Practice (EP) has been developed by Allwright, R. L. and his collaborators who were situated mainly in Rio de Janeiro, Brazil. Explanatory Practice is a form of teacher development and can therefore, be compared to other forms of practitioner developments such as Reflective Practice, Farrell, T. C. (2007), or Action Research, Wallace, M. J. (1998).

Allwright, R. L. and his collaborators proposed and explored this framework. They designed Exploratory Practice as an approach for the professional development of teachers who could not spare time for classroom research. It is another attempt to go beyond a method-bound conception of language teaching. Allwright, R. L. (2005), defines EP by saying, "Exploratory Practice (EP) is an indefinitely sustainable way for classroom language teachers and learners, while getting on with their own learning and teaching, to develop their own understandings of life in the language classroom."

Allwright's Exploratory Practice considers language teaching as a matter of exploring new ideas and learning from them. Exploratory Practice, according to Allwright, R. L. (2003), connects experts' professional

theories with teachers' personal theories through its three fundamental tenets: "to prioritize the quality of life of our learning-teaching environment above any concern for instructional efficiency", "to develop our understandings of the quality of learning-teaching life instead of simply searching for ever-'improved' teaching techniques", and to recognize "the fundamentally social nature of the mutual quest for understanding."

According to Allwright, R. L. (2003), "Exploratory Practice (EP) is an indefinitely sustainable way for classroom language teachers and learners, while getting on with their own learning and teaching, to develop their own understandings of life in the language classroom." The principled framework for teachers offered by Allwright, R. L. (2000), emphasizes creating learning opportunities in the classroom for developing local understandings. Allwright's Exploratory Practice emphasizes on ensuring teachers' understanding of the quality of classroom environment rather than mere running after developing ever 'improved' teaching methods. For Allwright, R. L. the dynamics of the classroom life or environment is of considerable importance compared to the techniques or any kind of method employed in the classroom. Allwright, R. L. (2003), says, "Working for understanding life in the classroom will provide a good foundation for helping teachers and learners make their time together pleasant and productive. It will also, I believe, prove to be a friend

of intelligent and lasting pedagogic change, since it will automatically provide a firm foundation for any ‘improvements’ that investigation suggests are worth trying.”

According to Allwright, R. L. (1993), “the central concern is a wish to offer a practical way of bringing the research perspective properly into the classroom, without adding significantly and unacceptably to teachers’ workloads, so as to contribute both professional development and to theory-building within and across the profession.”

In order to deepen both learners’ and teachers’ understandings of language learning and of life, Allwright, R. L. (2000), proposes six principles and two suggestions:

Principle 1: Put “quality of life” first.

Principle 2: Work primarily to understand language classroom life.

Principle 3: Involve everybody.

Principle 4: Work to bring people together.

Principle 5: Work also for mutual development.

Principle 6: Make the work a continuous enterprise.

Suggestion 1: Minimize the extra effort of all sorts for all concerned.

Suggestion 2: Integrate the “work for understanding” into the existing working life of the classroom.

There are also seven core principles of EP, as proposed by Allwright, D. and Hanks, J. (2009). They are

as follows:

1. Focus on quality of life as the main issue.
2. Work to understand it before thinking about improving it.
3. Involve everybody as practitioners developing their own understandings.
4. Work to bring people together in a common enterprise.
5. Work cooperatively for mutual development.
6. Make it a sustainable enterprise.
7. Integrate the work for understanding into existing curricular practice to minimise the burden.

Method or Post-method? That is the Question!

A number of conditions, principles and parameters have been offered by post-method theorists who criticized the methods theorists. However, conditions, principles and parameters are still standing the test of validity to find out the extent of their usefulness. Therefore, still many practitioners and theorists have the right to question even the post-method condition. Theorizing and teaching circles may get overwhelmed by the question: Does Post-method Bring an End to Method?

Post-method, theoretically, frees teachers from method. However, it seems that post-method addresses only highly qualified and professional teachers in first or second language teaching/learning context and not ordinary or unqualified teachers who are the majority in foreign language teaching situation. When ordinary teachers want to choose their own way of teaching, they cannot choose whatever they want. Some of them may even fail to make a choice as they are not capable to make a choice. In Foreign language teaching situation, teachers are mostly not academically or professionally qualified and at the same time they cannot act upon their commonsense to device their own effective ways of teaching. We may fully agree with Soto, M. A. (2014), who says that “the apparent freedom of choice that the

post-method condition seems to offer ELT practitioners, often results in the adoption of a jumbled concoction of techniques, which might actually represent a screen concealing teachers' limitations both to implement eclectic, principled practices that contribute to the effectiveness of the language learning process." Moreover, Akbari, R. (2008), adds that "the financial and occupational constraints they work within" make some teachers unable to devote sufficient time and energy to reflect upon their own teaching to overcome the language classroom problems.

In the past, methods and approaches used to give academically and professionally qualified teachers a systematic frame within which they tried to act and accomplish their tasks. However, theorizers of the post-method condition got involved in theorizations which are even more abstract, complex and vague than those of methods and approaches theorizers. Consequently, teachers' roles and task became formidable, multi-dimensional and complicated. They are no longer mere teachers, but also as evaluators, observers, critical thinkers and theorizers as well. It is important to remember that if teaching in foreign language teaching context wants to be systematic, it has to operate within a systematic frame of processes and procedures and this can only be provided by methods. In foreign language teaching context, teaching task can't be left to the whims of teachers who are mostly unqualified and

unprofessional. Though the time now is that of Post-method period, but if teachers want to perform teaching effectively, they will continue searching for best methods that suit various parts of the same course. Akbari, R. (2008), rightly says, “Even if teachers do not openly subscribe to a method, the textbooks they use provide them with a working plan that defines how languages are taught and learned.” It means that even in post-method era, qualified practitioners will finally resort to develop their own theorization which will, at the end, turn to be some kind of method. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), “What post-method pedagogy assumes is that the teacher will eventually construct his own theory of practice.” For example, if the teacher wants to adopt and follow the three pedagogic parameters, he may face many problems because, in the words of Chen, Mingyao (2014), “the boundaries of the three parameters are unclear and the characteristic features of these parameters overlap. They shape and are shaped by one another.” Moreover, such pedagogic parameters need qualified teachers to reflect upon and utilize them effectively so as to produce a systematic frame of reference out of them. Otherwise not only the pedagogic parameters will fail, but also the whole post-method condition will remain a crude theorization for many, or rather the majority of, the language teachers. Therefore, the task which is thrown upon the shoulders of the teachers is formidable. Akbari, R. (2008), says that the post-method has made the teacher

play “extra roles of social reformer and cultural critic” and consequently it took, as Akbari, R. (2008), puts it, “language teaching beyond the realms of possibility and practice.”

Nobody can deny the fact that strictly and blindly adhering to method or remain completely involved in its mechanical practices have already failed. However, discarding the whole concept of method and moving to the theorization of post-method will mean departing the traditions of framed and referenced teaching and entering into a period of abstract and unclear theorization which is characterized by vagueness, complexity and arbitrariness. It means that shifting from the history-rooted method-based pedagogies to another theorizing and rather unclear Post-method pedagogy may never give a tangible result or fruitful outputs. It may, rather, give birth to new confusions, challenges and even failure. We may fully agree with Block, D. (2001), who argues that method certainly retains a great deal of vitality at emic level (that is at the grassroots or to the public at large) though method may have been discredited at an etic level (that is in theory and in the thinking of scholars). Richards, J. C. and Rodgers, T. S. (2001), claim that “experience with different approaches and methods, however, can provide teachers with an initial practical knowledge base in teaching and can also be used to explore and develop teachers’ own beliefs, principles and practices.” Bell, D. M. (2003), says, “methods can be seen as vehicles for

innovation and challenge to the status quo.” Thus, the absolute departure from the stronghold of method is impossible. In fact, post-method has extracted the good from method and devised, in the words of Bell, D. M. (2003), “the tools to deconstruct their totalizing tendencies and so counter the tendency toward overroutinization.”

It means that post-method era, in the words of Bell, D. M. (2007), does not “imply the end of methods but rather an understanding of the limitations of the notion of method as it is narrowly defined and a desire to transcend those limitations” by making the teachers capable of developing a standardized process of language teaching/learning which fits their own local contexts. Nobody can deny the fact that method pedagogy enables qualified and professional teachers, particularly in first and second language teaching context, to understand the relationship between theorizers and practitioners and keep up their sense of proper involvement in effective teaching that results in effective and tangible learning. It means that whether they are highly qualified or ordinary teachers, they need a pedagogy that guides them and provides them with some principles, procedures, techniques and frameworks which are essential for conducting an effective teaching/learning activity. Therefore, at the end teachers have to resort to methods in order to extract from them what helps them to systemize the task of teaching/learning.

Truly qualified and experienced teachers have always their own guiding beliefs and principle. Breen M. P., Hird B., Milton M., Oliver R. and Thwaite A. (2001), say that, “teachers’ beliefs comprise a set of guiding principles.” Therefore, they will always be able to produce their own theorizing about teaching and shape their practices by refining them. Breen M. P., Hird B., Milton M., Oliver R. and Thwaite A. (2001), go on to say that those guiding principles “mediate between the experientially informed teacher beliefs and the teacher’s ongoing decision making and actions with a particular class of learners in a particular teaching situation.” They add that these pedagogic principles are “reflexive in both shaping what the teacher does whilst being responsive to what the teacher observes about the learners’ behavior and their achievements in class.”

Therefore, the implementation of post-method pedagogy requires appropriate teacher education that qualifies teachers in many aspects of teaching in post-method condition. Akbari, R. (2008), stated, “Missing from post method is how teachers are prepared to perform their duties as post method practitioners because post method view heavily emphasizes teacher qualifications.” Akbari, R. (2008), rightly points out that “the assumption of post-method proponents is that all teachers by default are qualified or willing to conduct a post-method class with all its social, cognitive, political, and cultural requirements. That assumption, however, is questionable

because many teachers lack the required knowledge or skill to teach in the post-method fashion.”

Two other major sources of barriers; pedagogical and ideological have been mentioned by Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), which need to be addressed to make Post-method successful in accomplishing the task of teaching/learning. According to Kumaravadivelu, (2006a), “The pedagogical barrier relates to the content and character of L2 teacher education” which mainly deals with the mere transfer of, in the words of Kumaravadivelu, (2006a), “a set of pre-determined, pre-selected, and pre-sequenced body of knowledge from the teacher educator to the prospective teacher.” Akbari, R. (2008), says, “the ideological barrier refers to the politics of representation and what counts as valid knowledge. Through a process of marginalization and self-marginalization, teachers’ practical knowledge does not find the space and the scope to be regarded as visible, and consequently, fails to become part of the accepted knowledge of the discourse community.”

Therefore, it is essential to arrange true-qualifying and training facilities for teachers so as to qualify them academically, methodologically, linguistically, communicatively, culturally, socially and make them ready to undertake their task in post-method era. In this regard, there should be an active communication between teachers and educators so that educators can understand what teachers lack and teacher can get what they need to

accomplish a successful teaching/learning effort. Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001), says, “When, through a series of dialogic interactions, channels of communication between teacher educators and prospective teachers open up, when prospective teachers actively and freely use the linguistic, cultural, and pedagogic capital they bring with them, and when teacher educators use the student-teacher’s values, beliefs, and knowledge as an integral part of the learning process, then the entire process of teacher education becomes reflective and rewarding.”

Finally, it can be said that post-method condition will never be able to bring an end to method era. Teachers will never be able to do away with methods and approaches. Post-method is not a method. It emerged as an alternative to method; a new trend in language teaching. However, post-method does not mean the end of methods, but it makes teachers understand what methods used to give. It offers them autonomy to rediscover their own powers as sources in creating new pedagogies which contain effective techniques and procedures of teaching the target language which are generated according to the teaching/learning context. Teachers should be able to adopt, adapt and/or develop their own pedagogies according to their contexts. Teachers should make use of their own experiences and knowledge and they should become researchers as well as a practitioner in order to move beyond the idealism which

method had claimed for decades and land on realism which springs from the requirements of the local context of teaching/learning. They should also be able to construct their own pedagogy by referring to the new trends such as macro-strategic, the three-dimensional and exploratory practice frameworks and take them as general and flexible guidelines to generate their own effective teaching practices. These frameworks may offer principles that are applicable and adaptable according to the teaching/learning situation. They may guide both experienced and even inexperienced teachers, make them both as researchers and practitioners and lead them towards achieving professional development. These frameworks make teachers focus not on how methods work but, according to Arikan, A. (2006), on how teachers work to construct and implement methods or how they go beyond the existing methods in relation to the frameworks and generate their own pedagogies. Thus, teachers, in the post-method era, are in front of great challenges are formidable tasks that will shape and influence the future theory and practice of language teaching.

Video/Book-based Learning Approach

Introduction

Throughout the history of language teaching/learning, theorists were busy in coining new theories, methods and approaches of language teaching. Consequently, many language teaching theories, methods and approaches have emerged, at different periods, trying to help teachers in the process of teaching. However, all theorists, methodists and approachists have never tried to stop and, patiently, knock the door of the learner himself to know, thoroughly from him, what he needs and what learning techniques he adopts and how he learns. It means that they have not given sufficient contemplation on the learners' potentialities and styles of learning and how he progresses in the process of learning the target language. In fact, by theorizing mostly for the teacher, the theorizers added nothing to teaching profession except burdening it with only mental exertion and methodological scatterings which made it incapable of incorporating the contradictory methods and approaches or deriving many practical and useful benefits from them. Those language teaching theories, methods and approaches treated the teacher as if he were undertaking the task of teaching heavy-brained creatures who wait only for the teacher to deliver the tasks into their minds and they do not have any

technique or style of learning of their own. The result was that teachers, in foreign language context in particular, failed to deliver what methods and approaches provide and similarly learners of the foreign language also failed to learn it.

Moreover, psychology and linguistics have been also a source of much theorizing about teaching/learning. Approaches and methods that exploit psycholinguistic theories also came forward to propose ways of teaching learning to the teachers, but they also failed to give a clear cut saying about learning a foreign language by the learner. We may fully agree with Noam, Chomsky, (1966), who says, “Still, it is difficult to believe that either linguistics or psychology has achieved a level of theoretical understanding that might enable it to support a ‘technology’ of language teaching.” Noam, Chomsky, says that both psychology and linguistics have made significant progress in recent decades. However, since both psychological and linguistic theories are in a state of continuous flux and agitation, confidence in these fundamental disciplines has declined after much walking in their mazes. Long accepted principles of association and reinforcement, the view of linguistic behavior as a matter of habit formation and many other tenets of behavioristic learning from psychology are being challenged in theoretical as well as experimental work. Therefore, methods, approaches, psychology and linguistics provided nothing to learning except abstract

theorization, artificiality in presentation and complexity in implementation. Hornby, A. S., (1950), the proponent of what he called the Situational Approach in language teaching by attempting to relate his teaching to situations and episodes of daily living, describes the problem of artificiality in language learning classroom as follows: “Young learners like to use the new language for something more exciting than the kinds of action chain that can be performed in the classroom. They want to learn about life in the country whose language they are learning, they want adventure stories and tales from history. Above all, they want to use the new language in talking about the affairs of daily life.”

Consequently, approaches, methods, psychology and linguistics appeared as if they have failed and disappointed their own fabricators. They lost their ability to have a deep influence upon teachers. The failure of methods and approaches, in particular, made theorists, methodists and approachists claim that they have reached to a post-method condition after more than a century of shifting from an approach to another and from a method to another.

In the post-method era, theorists, methodologists and approachists threw the whole task of teaching on the teacher and they have failed to realize that nothing can be learned without a method though they claim that they have entered the post-method period. If theorists, methodists and approachists failed to deliver a single

effective method or approach that satisfies the practitioners and if they failed to create a principled Eclectic Approach and if they, at the post-method period, threw the entire task on the shoulders of teachers who, in foreign language contexts, are mostly unqualified and unprofessional, then they have no right to speak any more about this issue. After all, learning will continue to take place and if theorists, methodists and approachists want to theorize about it, they have to come to the learner himself, observe the way he learns and then they may be able to establish new learning theories that would enable the practitioners, methodists and approachists to devise new methods and approaches of learning. In fact, right from the beginning theorists, methodists and approachists were supposed to knock the doors of the learners as learners, throughout the history, achieved a good progress in learning even without the help of an official teaching in some cases. Theorists, methodists and approachists were not in need to develop further theories about even language teaching as the necessary and sufficient conditions for a human being to learn a language are already known. It is already known that the child learns his mother tongue from the context around him and nobody teaches him his own mother tongue formally. Even a foreign language can be learned if sufficient circumstances are made available to the learner. If Michel, De Montaign did not acquire, but learned “Latin without rules because his father made him speak to him

in Latin all the time” in a time when there were no as many teaching/learning aids as it is now, then why is the whole matter of learning the target language not thrown on the shoulders of the learners as the history indicated learner’s ability to learn even a foreign language without official teaching as in the case of Michel, De Montaign? Why don’t we try to do the same thing with the learning of the target language especially we are in the period of abundant online learning aids and material that are capable of almost replacing the teacher himself, offering effective learning material and putting the learner on the track of efficient learning? Thus, till theorizers approach the learner and learn from the learner himself how he learns, they should just hold their hands off the issue of learning and leave the matter for the learner as the learner and the teacher as organizers of learning.

Moreover, those intelligent people who learned a foreign language in a foreign language learning context and made higher studies in the target language itself should be given a chance to say their own opinions about learning. Such intelligent learners of a foreign language in a foreign context are definitely better theorizers than the colonial theorists who were obsessed with abstract theorizations that aimed, only, to spread their hegemonic languages and hollow cultures. Therefore, as a learner of a foreign language in a foreign context, I would like to introduce and approach which called ‘Video/Book-based Learning Approach.’

Video/Book-based Learning Approach

As I have said earlier, learning contexts in which English language is a library language or a foreign language have witnessed various changes in methods and approaches of teaching, however, none of them helped in accomplishing a successful learning outcome. In an attempt to achieve a tangible outcome of teaching, many library/foreign language teaching contexts started introducing English language as a subject right from the first year of schooling and some of them have gone to the extent of introducing it right from the nursery and even the kindergarten level. Still such initiatives would not help very much in creating a successful learning of the foreign language because, firstly, teachers in contexts where English is a foreign language are, mostly, academically and professionally not qualified. Secondly, English language is not used at all in the societies where it is just a foreign language. In such a situation, a kind of extraordinary treatment is required in order to create a tangible result of learning/teaching efforts. In this regard, a compact package of learning efforts should be handed-over to the learner himself at an early stage of his childhood. I have called it a compact package of learning efforts, as it should be introduced by means of many learning aids such as videos, books, etc. Video should be introduced at the pre-school stage and books containing the same content of the videos should be introduced at the school level. Therefore, I called it Video/Book-based

Learning Approach (V/BbLA).

V/BbLA springs from my own personal experience in making my children to have a good achievement in learning English language at home. Their achievement is far better than the achievement of their classmates in the school which follows Arabic as a language of instruction from the first-year of school level. I subjected them, from early stages of their childhood, to videos of Aesop stories and similar visual learning material. They watched the videos which were, intensively, displayed to them on a big TV screen. In fact, videos of Aesop stories were part of their daily entertainment activities. Gradually, they started comprehending the subject-matter of each story. As they repeat watching the stories, they experienced a deeper understanding of stories that goes to the details of the vocabulary and structure. They have almost assimilated the language with its different dimensions. All this was achieved only by depending on watching/listening skill. As they grew, they went to school and learned basics of reading, I made them start reading the Aesop stories in simple, graded and printed form. They also continued watching the videos and reading the stories from the TV screen. I observed a rapid development of their English language achievement, particularly, in listening, reading and writing though they study in Arabic medium school. It is important to mention here that we do not use English language at home. Gradually the elder child started

writing his own thoughts and getting his writing activities for me to correct them. On the basis of my observations of the errors he commits, I started teaching him the basics of the grammar of English such as tenses, clauses, passive voice, etc. He developed a quick understanding of the various aspects of the grammar of English as he has abundant audiovisual resources to reinforce them. He also became a good reader of graded stories in English. On the basis of such a tangible achievement, I thought of suggesting V/BbLA for educational institutions and teachers in foreign language contexts so that they may try it with children they are teaching right from the pre-school level up to the initial years of the schooling. Thus, V/BbLA divides learning of a foreign language into two stages:

1. Pre-Kindergarten, Kindergarten and Nursery period which depends solely on videos, and
2. School period which depends on both videos and graded books of the same material of the videos.

However, forwarding V/BbLA to educational institutions in foreign language contexts does not contradict with my long-standing conviction which is against introducing a foreign language in the initial years of schooling in Sudan. In fact, I made the experiment with my children, but I took into consideration their cultural and linguistic identity. It means that introducing them to a foreign language has gone hand in hand with an active process of fostering their cultural and linguistic identity.

If educational institutions will do the same; patronage of the cultural and linguistic identity of the children, there is no objection to make an early introduction of a foreign language in the educational system.

Assumptions of Video/Book-based Learning

This approach believes that the task of teaching a foreign language should not be assigned to the teacher alone. The attempt to assign the task of teaching a foreign language to teachers has utterly failed though we have been trying it for decades or even more than a century. Moreover, books alone also failed to teach children the foreign language as books need a teacher and without the teacher, they are obsolete. Therefore, some combined factors are necessary to be introduced to help learners to learn the target language; namely, visual materials available on various modern media such as the internet, etc. Thus, now, the internet should join in the task of providing the learners material in the target language. Societies in which the target language is a foreign language should make the best out of the internet revolution which is dominating the world now. In fact, the internet is the tool which would, sufficiently, expose the learner to the target language and offer the learner a model pronunciation which is essential for learning the target language.

This approach which is based on video/book learning, invests the early age of the child; namely:

- The pre-kindergarten, kindergarten and nursery period in which the videos dominate the task of offering the learner with visual material from which he comprehends the content of the stories.
- Then the same content is presented to the learner at the beginning classes of the school level in the form of graded books which contains the same material which he visually watched. As the learners gets exposed to the printed form of the material he watched in the past, he continues watching the same material in its video form.

V/BbLA relies on the assumption that learners learn best when they are directly involved in learning and understanding the language they hear. If children are exposed to varieties of the same material at different levels, they will extract the best out of that material and learn it. As children have the ability to learn from the surrounding environment, they can learn better if they are exposed to authentic listening material; videos, etc., which provide them with a rich environment that is loaded with comprehension material. In other words, instead of allowing children to sit for long time in front of TV channels that only entertain them in their own mother tongues and produce naïve generation out of them, families can download authentic audiovisual material of the target foreign language and allow their children to get exposed to an organized soft-material that develops their listening and comprehension skill in the target language. This will allow them to get exposed to a great deal of

authentic input and they will learn a lot through it. At the pre-school level the videos of the Aesop stories can be displayed at home, in the kindergarten and in the nursery level. Maximum exposure of children to soft-authentic listening material at the pre-school level can decrease the burden of teaching and enable the teacher to discover the way the child learns and progresses in the process of foreign language learning. Societies should realize that a foreign language can't be taught. It has to be assimilated and picked up at an early age of the childhood and this is possible by providing children with authentic visual material that exposes them to the target language at the early stage of their childhood. It is at the initial stage of childhood that the child learns best and it is that level which poses as a real challenge to the teacher who tries to teach a foreign language to them. Therefore, if children get exposed to a vast and abundant and authentic visual material during the childhood, the task of the teacher would not be teaching in the traditional meaning of the term. He will be just an observer and a monitor of the process of learning carried out by the learner himself.

At the initial classes of the school level, when the child reaches the first class of the school level, he would be fully acquainted with the listening skill in the target language. Then, Aesop stories can be displayed in written form on screens or in the form of hard copies. In other words, this can be done through introducing the same material to which they have already listened, but in the

form of hard copies. Thus, the learner will not have a problem with the general content of the material. He will come in touch with the writing which represents for him what he had already heard. Therefore, learning the skill of reading and writing will be easier for him.

It means that by receiving children, in the first class of the school level, who have been exposed to listening to soft-authentic material during the pre-school level, the teacher would be free from the shackles of dealing with the formidable tasks of teaching such small children what they have already learnt by themselves at the pre-school level. Though the teacher, at the initial classes of the primary school, will start introducing reading and writing activities, but he will never be an autocrat or a controller of the process of learning. He will be mostly an observer and a monitor of the process of further learning while the child himself will undertake the task of getting exposed to the hard material presented before him and would learn from them according to his own pace and potentialities. It can be said that what the learner has learned through listening to authentic soft-material during the pre-nursery and nursery level is quite sufficient to put the learner on the track of learning writing and reading skills at the very initial classes of the school level and facilitate the task of teaching to the teacher. The only task of the teacher is to provide the learner with the hard-copies of the same material to which the learner had been exposed during the pre-school level.

Thus, at the school level and right from the initial classes of the school level, almost all the skills will go hand in hand with each other. The learner will find it easy to learn reading and writing as listening skill will be at its highest possible level of excellence.

As far as speaking skill is concerned, it will spring from the content already learned through listening activities. The teacher may just instigate the learners to retell what they have learned through listening activities in the previous stages. Such an instigation will move many children to come out and tell what they know as children at that stage are eager to speak whatever comes to their minds. If their minds were properly and sufficiently exposed to the authentic soft-material at the pre-school level, it will preoccupy their memory and they will have a lot to say in any way.

In the process of observing and monitoring children's learning, the teacher can reorganize the same material to enable the learners to start learning not only writing and reading skills, but also be acquainted with the vocabulary, structures and forms of the language they are learning. They can infer the meaning of the target language contextually and strengthen the newly formed grammatical items and structures situationally. He will even go deeper into the details of reading, writing, vocabulary and form of the material before him. He would be acquainted with a vast stock of target language in its listening comprehension form.

Aims of V/BbLA

The aims of the V/BbLA may be enumerated as follows:

- to make the child who lives in a place where the target language is a foreign language get exposed to a vast visual material that offers him opportunities of listening and understanding the target language by means of authentic visual material.
- to transcend the problem of the absence of the target language and its model speaker in the environment of the learners by providing him abundant visual material. The idea was that the child should watch these visual materials repeatedly until a good measure of listening comprehension is formed and then it is promoted into spoken skill in the target language.
- to hunt the skill picking-up of language at childhood period or what is called the 'innateness' of the language learning abilities by making the learner assimilate the foreign language through his own concentration on the visual material to which he is exposed.
- to make learning the target language similar, if not identical, to that of acquiring the mother tongue by exposing the child to the target language at early stages of his life so as to lay a strong foundation of the target language by making the child exposed to a visual material that targets his ability to pick up the language at an early stage of his life and makes the target language develop within him along with the mother tongue itself.

- to make children good at comprehending the target language and prepare them to be properly, fully and truly bilingual.
- to enable the learner to abandon making the mother tongue as an absolute frame of reference as it is the case where the target language is a foreign language and make the child come in touch directly with the target language and avoid resorting to translation, develop the semantic aspect of the language in the child at an early stage of childhood and make the child capable of inferring the meaning of the target language, directly, inductively and contextually. This would strengthen in the learner the ability to assimilate and internalize the form of the target language inductively and contextually and facilitate future studies of the grammar of the target language.
- to make the learner capable of developing thinking in the target language as early as possible in his life whether he was speaking or writing and avoiding the negative practice of inwardly thinking in his own mother tongue and then overtly producing it in the target language which is dominant in foreign language learning context where the produced target language is almost a literal translation of thinking in the mother tongue.
- to make the child internalize and construct the target language in his mind and develop speaking potentialities in the target language with a good level of

articulation ability that makes him capable of achieving native-like fluency in the target language as he grows.

- to provide the learner with meaningful language that develops in him a feeling for the language and enables him to get involved in meaningful understanding of the target language.
- to eradicate the effect of the interference of the mother tongue from the target language which the learner would start producing.
- to train the learner in writing by exposing him to the written material of the same visual material to which he was exposed during the pre-school level. Thus, he would get exposed to graphic signs on the printed page and he would, quickly, learn how to reproduce the graphic signs in writing.
- To train the child in pronunciation and gain an early learning from good models of accurate pronunciation and language expression so that when the child starts studying in the school level, he would have no problem with pronunciation.
- to give listening and speaking a priority in initiating the process of learning efforts and develop child's listening skill in the target language at an early stage of his life.
- to develop communicative and oral potentialities in the learners of the target language at an early age or at least put a strong foundation for them through intensive visual and written contents that provide abundant opportunity to develop listening and speaking skills.

- to develop not only fluency, but also accuracy in the target language.
- to make the target language a medium of use and not only a subject of learning.

Characteristics of V/BbLA

The basic characteristics of this approach is that it considers language as a means of communication that springs from listening and reading comprehension. Therefore, it maximizes the use of the listening comprehension at an early age of the life of the learners by employing simple and authentic videos which make the learners understand the target language as directly as they understand their own mother tongue and then it uses reading comprehension material to make the learner understand authentic reading material. Thus, Video/Book-based Learning Approach starts with comprehension which is derived initially from listening to videos and later on from reading the same visual material from books. The whole efforts are thus in the form of reinforced learning and understanding which takes place during early childhood whether from visual listening material or from written comprehension material.

It means that the use of the mother tongue is not necessary as learners can understand the meaning through getting exposed to the authentic material directly by means of early listening it from videos and later reading

it from the hard copy. The presentation of authentic material helps to clarify the meaning of words and the type of form of the target language so that the learner can absorb them inductively and contextually. They deduce the meaning, directly, from the context of the language.

Visual material is intensively used at the initial stages of the language as listening comprehension is emphasized at the beginning. It stimulates learners' interest through visual stories and this is one of the most adorable learning techniques for small children. It means that most of the listening comprehension achievement is achieved before the school level; namely at home, kindergarten and nursery through visual material. The child gets a vast amount of comprehensible visual input that loads him with the subject matter of the stories. It projects language content through visual aids and thus it injects in the learners almost all aspects of the language in a crude form which is liable for processing and unfolding its various aspects. When the child comes to the school level, he gets his learning process unfolded and organized by the teacher.

The main characteristics of Video/Book-based Learning Approach can be enumerated as follows:

- This method has a kind of relation with 'Whole Language Approach' in which children will learn from whole to part.
- In V/BbLA, visual materials are very essential. They are the core of the learning material. They make an early

introduction of authentic visual material to enable the learner possess proper listening skill before they begin speaking skill which will start unfolding at the beginning of the school level.

- V/BbLA gives the learner a comprehensible input that puts in him the foundation for speaking skill as well as other skills.
- V/BbLA exposes the learner to authentic soft-material right from the pre-school level to make him inhale a great deal of input that develops his listening comprehension.
- The V/BbLA is based on the concept of meaningful listening to the target language. Thus, listening is the base on which learning of other skills are developed. Priority is given to comprehending visual material which acts as a life-like source of the language. In other words, listening is the major focus at the initial level as it develops comprehension and exposes the learners to the structure and form in context and situationally so that they can be understood inductively, contextually and functionally.
- By providing listening and then reading material and pushing the learner to understand the language in context, this learning approach concentrates on the sentence and considers it as a unit of learning. It puts the learner into the bulk of the authentic language.
- At the initial stage of V/BbLA, learners are autonomous in their efforts to learn the target language. The learners get involved in learning by getting exposed to the visual

resources and promoting their comprehension skills. They get sufficient time to listen and comprehend the target language.

- It introduces the written material at the school level on the basis of the visual material to which the learner had been exposed at the pre-school levels; namely, pre-kindergarten, kindergarten and nursery levels.
- It introduces learner to a vast body of authentic language, initially, it is in video form and as it is authentic and the child is still small, he starts acquiring vocabulary which he absorbs all together.
- It develops both the skills of deductive and inductive dealing with various aspects of the language such as form, vocabulary and general meaning of the context. Learners develop their own reading of the form and develop their own stock of contextual vocabulary and grammar studies.
- Learning formal language is based on the grammar which was internalized and assimilated at the first stage by means of getting exposed to listening comprehension. It means that it introduces the form of the language at an early level of the schooling by making the learner get acquainted with the grammar by means of help of inductive and contextual presentation.
- Accuracy develops as a result of getting exposed to both authentic listening and reading contents which are in the form of both soft-material and the same material in hard copies.

- It resembles the process by which the child acquires his own mother tongue; that is listening, speaking, writing and reading. In other words, it develops almost all the skill together by providing abundant listening material through videos and making the learners interact on the basis of what they have comprehended. In other words, V/BbLA makes the learners develop almost listening and speaking skills simultaneously and they develop vocabulary and form by activating reading skill which depends on the reading material in the form of the same video-material, but in written form.
- The mother tongue is judiciously used by the teacher only and when there is a necessity to do so. It means that this method recognizes the role of the mother-tongue in learning the target language. The learner depends on both the mother tongue and the contextual presentation of the language item to increase his comprehension skill.
- Correct pronunciation is a crucial matter in V/BbLA. Learners are exposed to almost native-like pronunciation. They get model pronunciation from listening to material which they were exposed to.
- This approach is not too demanding on the teacher. It means that he is not an autocrat. He is just an observer and monitor of the process of learning undertaken by the learners.

- Repetition of the material through video and written forms contributes in reinforcing the language and assimilating it.

Material of V/BbLA

Now, a lot of excellent language learning materials and courses for children are present in the internet. They are in the form of authentic listening material such Aesop Stories, etc. which are well produced in the form of videos simply presented in a pictorial manner. In fact, the material available now in internet is capable of turning a foreign language into a second language for the generations who come into close touch with it, watch it and listen to it.

Thus, authentic soft-material of learning now can be devised, designed and managed in different manners for pre-school children and for the initial stages of the school level. In societies where, for example, English language is a library/foreign language, families and teachers can provide authentic soft-material in video form and make them part of the child's life; in pre-Kindergarten, Kindergarten and Nursery stages. In this regard, media can raise the awareness of families and teachers so that they may download and provide their children such a material either through TVs or through other displaying devices such computers, laptops, iPads, etc. so that children can listen to them during their Kindergarten and Nursery levels. Now, TVs, laptops,

iPads, etc. are available in every home and they can be utilized for providing maximum exposure to, at least, listening material of the target language. Families and teachers should be made aware of the value of learning-websites which provide video material for children to enable them to listen to the target language and get sufficient exposure to it throughout the Kindergarten and Nursery level. When the child comes to the Kindergarten and Nursery levels, such a soft-material can be displayed on a big screen in the recreation-hall of the Kindergartens and Nurseries so that children can either watch it or listen to it while they are in the Kindergartens or Nurseries. Thus, children can continue to get exposed to listening to such a soft-material since their infancy and their achievement can be tested at the time of enrolling them to the Kindergarten, Nursery and school. This will lighten the teaching burden upon the teacher who will find a learner, when getting enrolled to the kindergarten, the nursery and the school, enjoys a tangible quantum of internalized and comprehended language. On the basis of such a potential language deposit acquired during the pre-school level, the school system can build up by providing material that is based on what the child came in contact with during the pre-school so that he can proceed in the process of learning and bear the major burden of teaching himself by himself. In such a process, even the low-achievement learners can gain some kind of a tangible progress as he is continuously in touch with active and

outcoming learners and repeated material. Therefore, the material designed for initial school level can address all learners by fostering the learning of those who achieved something during their pre-school level and pushing the slow learners towards achieving some tangible learning.

Even the buses which transfers pupils, if they are the school buses, should have visual facilities that put the learners in a context of being in a continuous touch with the target language and grasp as much input as they can. This should be a pre-condition to operate the school buses which transfer pupils. Thus, early-age listening comprehension derived from watching soft-material is the base of this approach.

Then, at the initial nursery level, some writing activities can be introduced. As the learner progresses to the initial classes of the school level, grammar also can be introduced, gradually and functionally, and it can be learned easily if the learners have internalized a suitable comprehension level of what is spoken to them. This means that the teacher can start teaching grammar rules that functionally and situationally organize the spoken and written products of the learners.

Learning Techniques in V/BbLA

The child who comes to the school level after getting sufficient exposure to the authentic soft-material; for example, Aesop Stories, can be made a source of reinforcement for himself and for other children

as well as a source of information to slow learners. The teacher can select the outstanding child and make him relate the story in front of the class. Another child also can be made to stand and relate the story and so on. They can be made to act the story.

The teacher performs a model reading so that the learners can listen to difficult vocabularies in context through a model reading. Then, the learners read the story from the book and underline difficult vocabularies so that the teacher can explain the meaning of those vocabularies either in the target language or, if not possible, in the mother tongue. In fact, the child learns language by being exposed to varieties of vocabularies in context presented before him for their contextual appropriateness. Then, the teacher can give a glance to the form of language in the story. For, example some forms may be in present simple and some other may be in the past simple and so on. The teacher should handle a single tense at a time, show its occurrence in the story and explain it. In the following session, the teacher can explain another tense and at the same time make a revision of the previous tense by means of the references available in the second story and so on. Thus, from such an authentic material, the child induces the form of the language and understands it. Hence, there is no artificiality in presenting the form or the vocabulary of the target language as both of them are introduced in context and through authentic material. The learner comes in touch with their functional use and enjoys

learning them. The authentic written material becomes not only a source of general comprehension, but also a source of repeated revision and learning of the form and vocabulary of the target language which the learner would start using in his upcoming communication. Such a trend of learning may fully agree with what Newmark, L. and Reibel, D. A. (1968), has said: “A language will be learned by a normal human being if and only if particular, whole instances of language use are modeled for him and if his own particular acts using the language are selectively reinforced.”

Merits of V/BbLA

There are many advantages of introducing V/BbLA in the process of learning foreign language. They can be enumerated as follows:

- This learning approach is very useful for small children at the pre-school level and at the first years of schooling. It is very effective in putting a good foundation in the foreign language at lower classes where children, if sufficiently exposed to it, may pick up the foreign language the way they pick up their own mother tongue.
- It is unique as it puts the early age factor of the child in service of the target language learning. At this stage of life, the child enjoys learning through stories. Thus, this approach makes use of the many aspects of previous approaches and method and implements, as well, the theoretical insights gained from psychology and

linguistics. Thus, the skepticism pertaining to the value of previous approaches, methods and the insights of modern psychology and linguistics about foreign language learning can be dispelled as a result of this approach to foreign language learning.

- The approach is flexible. It allows the teacher to use suitable technique and activities that are capable to promote listening and speaking skills.
- This learning approach is highly learner-centered. It puts the learner at the center of the learning process. It makes the maximum use of self-access material in the form of simple and authentic visual stories to which the child is exposed, right from early childhood. It means that it develops in the learner the ability to utilize self-access authentic listening contents of his interest and thus benefit from them and initiates learners for self-activities in listening and then reading right from an early stage of their life.
- It gives the learners the experience of a whole language and this offers them not only listening comprehension, content of the authentic visual material presented before them, but also it helps in assimilating the target language and developing all the skills of the language one after the other within a short period
- It is a natural way of learning that tries to assimilate the same way the child acquires his own mother tongue. In fact, there is a great scope of developing all the skills of the target language. They may not get developed

together simultaneously. Some skills may be learned better than the others, but all of them are in a continuous development so long as the learner remains exposed to the authentic material and gets the opportunities to interact with the classmates and the activities provided by the teachers. The learner gets a strong foundation in the language skills which enables him to develop and upgrade them easily. In other words, learning takes place in a natural way because the learners have authentic listening material that paves the way for them to initiate speaking practice followed by reading and writing practices.

- It develops the power of listening comprehension early and fosters it by way of providing intensive practice of listening to authentic material in the target language and exposing the learner to it. This is a great advantage of this approach because developing speaking skill depends basically on getting exposed to listening skill.
- This learning approach is based on the practical consideration that learning contents which help small learners to learn are available now online and such a material can reduce the burden on the teacher as the child comes to school with sufficient base of listening comprehension in the target language and still remain exposed to authentic material of listening and reading.
- This approach develops, in the children, strategies to find out the meaning of the authentic video material

which they are watching. In fact, the strongest claim of this approach rests in its comprehension-based feature.

- It exposes the learner to model pronunciation and thus it puts the foundation for correct speech habit and oral skill in the learner. It means that the phonetic aspect of the target language is also taken care of in this approach.
- It helps the learners to acquire fluency in speaking skill in the target language they are learning by undergoing an intensive and prolonged course of listening to the target language.
- As the child watches the stories, he would come across many written letters and even words. As the child moves to the school level, it becomes easier for him to learn and understand the language in its written form and content. This would facilitate the task of learning not only reading, but also writing skills.
- It develops in the learners the ability to think in the target language and move to construct, appropriately, their own sentences and expressions through it on the basis of the model sentences they have encountered in the authentic material they have watched and read.
- It puts a strong foundation for developing reading skill also. This skill is very much needed in foreign language context where English language is used at the higher levels of studies as a library and source language.
- There is no anxiety in this approach. The learner is fully relaxed and enjoys the material which is being presented before him. It means that learning through this

approach creates a conducive atmosphere for language learning which is enjoyable and memorable for the learner. The stories displayed through the videos trigger positive mood in the learner, expel sense of monotony, make the learner engage his attention to the meaning of material presented before him and develop the sense of self-confidence in the learner by making him initiative and outcoming. The learner is highly motivated and he capitalizes that high motivation to create a steady progress in learning the target language.

- It helps learner to feel the language and thus he learns the form of the language inductively and functionally. In other words, it develops in the learner the internal grammatical competence. As the learner progresses in the process of learning, he becomes capable of making a natural use of grammatically correct sentences that suit the context and situation.
- It makes the learner understand much of the vocabulary directly and contextually without much need for translation into the mother tongue, therefore, he builds up a good stock of vocabulary at an early stage of his life and this would definitely help in developing and fostering other skills in the language.
- It allows translation into the mother tongue for vocabulary and structures which are difficult to be understood directly, situationally and contextually.
- This approach, if well manipulated, has the ability to establish a good foundation of general comprehension

skill that makes the learner possess a tangible potentiality of internalized language which would definitely develop his production skills; speaking and writing. In other words, from material specially designed for listening and reading comprehension the teacher can promote the productive skills of the learner.

- This approach is easy for the school teacher as he would deal with learners who came from listening comprehension activities into reading activities and further listening activities.
- It enables the learners to retain in their minds for a long time the subject matter of the authentic material which they have watched and read and this helps them to construct, later on, intelligible expressions whether spoken or written. In other words, the grasped language lasts as he learned it during the early childhood.
- It helps all learners to learn the target language. Even the slow learners gain a tangible progress in the target language.
- If this approach is properly employed, it will open up new possibilities to transform the foreign/library language into the status of almost a second language in a foreign language context.

Bibliography

- Abdelrahman, M. Yeddi Elnoor "A Critical Study of English Language Teaching in Sudan", Unpublished Ph.D. Thesis, Dr. BAM University, Aurangabad, India, 1997.
- (2018), Teaching English in Sudan: A Practical Approach, (6th. Revised Edition).
- (2018), Sudanese Educational Issues: An Ideological Perspective, (6th. Revised Edition).
- (2018), History of English Language in Sudan: A Critical Re-reading, (6th. Revised Edition).
- (2018), Teaching English in Sudan: A Practical Approach, (6th. Revised Edition).
- (2018), History of Educational Experiments in Sudan: A Brief Account, (5th. Revised Edition).
- (2018), Intellectual, Scientific and Academic Miscellany, (5th. Revised Edition).
- (2018), Tayeb Salih's Season of Migration to the North: An Ideo-Literary Evaluation, (English Version), (6th. Revised Edition).
- (2018), Tayeb Salih's Season of Migration to the North: An

Ideo-Literary Evaluation, (Arabic Version),
(5th. Revised Edition).

----- (2019), Grammar of
English: Explanation, Rule and Drills, (6th.
Revised Edition).

----- (2018), The New
Muslim's Book of the Fundamentals of Is-
lam: Their Significance, (6th. Revised Edi-
tion).

----- (2018), Qisas Qeya-
meya (Value-based Stories), (in Arabic) (1st.
edition).

----- (2019), Min Zalam
Dhalal Al Saqeefah Ela Noor Hidayat Al
Safeenah (in Arabic), (2nd. Revised Edi-
tion).

----- (2019), Ahd Al
Akhwan Al Mot'aslimeen Ahd Al Wabal Al
Wakheem: Tanawol Falsafi Li Mawadhee'
Tarbot Al Madhi bil Hadhir, (in Arabic),
(1st. Edition).

----- "Aims of Education
in Sudan: An Ideological Overview", in the
Journal of 'Educational Insight', Quarterly,
Vol. 1, No. 2, Dec. 1997.

----- "Language Policy in
Sudan", RELC Journal, Vol. 32, No. 2, Dec.
2001.

----- "Mother Tongue as
Medium", in Radiance Viewsweekly, 11-17
April, 1999.

----- "Foreign Transmis-
sion and the Allegiance of Human

Intellect”, in Radiance Viewsweekly, 3-9 Jan., 1999.

- “Sudan: A Model of Real Independence”, in Radiance Viewsweekly, 15-21 Feb., 1998.
- Adams, M. J. (1991), Why not Phonics and Whole Language? In, Ellis, W. (Ed.), All Language and the Creation of Literacy, Baltimore, MD: Orton Dyslexia Society.
- Adair-Hauck, B. (1996), Practical Whole Language Strategies for Secondary and University Level FL Learners, *Foreign Language Annals*, 29.
- Akbari, R. (2004), Recent Developments in Foreign Language Teaching, *Roshd FLT*, 20, (76).
- Akbari, R. (2007), Reflections on Reflection: A Critical Appraisal of Reflective Practices, in, *L2 Teacher Education, System*, 35, 2.
- Akbari, R. (2008), Post-method Discourse and Practice, *TESOL Quarterly*, 42, (4).
- Akbari R., Behzadpoor F. & Dadvand B. (2010), Development of English Language Teaching Reflection Inventory, *System*, 38.
- Ali, A. M. (1981), Teaching English to Arab Students, Jordan: Al-Falah House.
- Alhaddad, Abdelkareem Saleem (2014), Jordanian Literacy Education: Should Whole Language be Implemented? Retrieved from: <http://eujournal.org/index.php/esj/article/viewFile/3029/2855>
- Al-Hamash, I. K. & Younis, H. (1985), Principles and Techniques of Teaching English as a Second Language, Al-Shaab Press.

- Al-Khuli, M. A. (1981), *Teaching English to Arab Students*, Al-Falah House, Jordan.
- Allen, H. B. (1965), *Teaching English as a Second Language*, (ed.), New York: McGraw- Hill.
- Allwright, D. & Hanks, J. (2009), *The Developing Language Learner*, Basingstoke: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Allwright, R. L. (1979), *Language Learning Through Communication Practice*, in *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching*, (ed.), Brumfit, C. J. & Johnson, K. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Allwright, R. L. (1984), *The Importance of Interaction in Classroom Learning*, *Applied linguistics*, 5, (1).
- Allwright, R. L. (1991), *The Death of the Method*, (Working Paper, 10), The Exploratory Practice Centre, the University of Lancaster, England.
- Allwright, R. L. (1993), *Integrating 'Research' and 'Pedagogy': Appropriate Criteria and Practical Possibilities*, in, Edge, J. & Richards, K. (eds.), *Teachers Develop Teachers Research*, Oxford, Heinemann.
- Allwright, R. L. (2000), *Exploratory Practice: An Appropriate Methodology for Language Teacher Development*, in, 8th. IALS Symposium for Language Teacher Educators, Edinburgh, Scotland.
- Allwright, R. L. (2003), *Exploratory Practice: Rethinking Practitioner Research in Language Teaching*, *Language Teaching Research*, 7, (2).
- Allwright, R. L. (2005), *Developing Principles for*

- Practitioner Research: The Case of Exploratory Practice, *The Modern Language Journal*, 89, (3).
- Arikan, A. (2006), Post-method Condition and its Implications for English Language Teacher Education, *Journal of Language and Linguistics Studies*, 2, (1).
- Ariza, E. N. (2002), Resurrecting “Old” Language Learning Methods to Reduce Anxiety for New Language Learners: Community Language Learning to the Rescue, *Bilingual Research Journal*, 26, (3).
- Asher, James (1968), *The Total Physical Response Method for Second Language Learning*, California: San Jose State College.
- Asher, James (1969), *The Total Physical Response to Second Language Learning*, *Modern Language Journal*, 53, (1).
- Asher, James (1972a), Children’s First Language as a Model for Second Language Learning, *MLJ* 56.
- Asher, James (1972b), Implications of Psychological Research for Second Language Learning, in, Lange, 1972.
- Asher, James (1973), *Total Physical Response Known Worldwide as TPR*, Sky Oaks Productions, 24, May (2006), from: <http://www.tpr-world.com/Merchant2/merchant.mvc?Screen=CTGY&Store_Code=tprworld&Category_Code=100>

- Asher James, Kusudo J. A. & De la Torre R. (1974), Learning a Second Language Through Commands: The Second Field Test, MLJ, 58, (1-2), Learning a Second Language Through Commands: The Second Field Test, MLJ 58, (1-2).
- Asher, James (1977), Learning Another Language Through Actions: The Complete Teacher's Guide, Los Gatos, California: Sky Oaks Productions.
- Asher, James (1982), Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition, New York: Pergamon Press.
- Asher, James (1997), Language by Command, The Total Physical Response Approach to Learning Language, Retrieved: February 18th 2010, from: <http://www.context.org/ICLIB/IC06/Asher.htm>
- Asher, James (1998), James Asher's Total Physical Response. A Short Introduction, Retrieved April 2nd, 2010, from: <http://www.c-english.com/files/tpr.pdf>
- Asher, James (2000), Language Impact, Helping Language Learners Learn Language. Retrieved April 2nd. 2010, from: <http://www.languageimpact.com/articles/other/ash-ertpr.htm>
- Asher, James (2001a), Future Directions: For Fast, Stress-free Learning on the Right Side of the Brain. Retrieved on 12 October, 2011, from: <http://www-tprworld.com/future.html>.

- Asher, James (2001b), Keynote Address: How Brain Influence Behaviour, Alberta Teachers of English as a Second Language, Calgary, Retrieved on 12 October, 2011, from: <http://www.tprworld.com/calgarykey-note.html>
- Asher, James (2006), Organizing Your Classroom for Successful Second Language Acquisition, www.tprsource.com/asher.htm, (Accessed on 20 August.
- Asher, James (2007), TPR: After Forty Years, Still a Very Good Idea, retrieved on December 10, 2016, from: <http://www.tpr-world.com/japan-article.html>
- Asher, James (2009), The Total Physical Response: Review of the Evidence, Retrieved April 2nd. 2010, from: http://www.tpr-world.com/review_evidence.pdf
- Ausubel, D. P., Novak, J. D., & Hanesian, H. (1978), Educational Psychology: A Cognitive View, (2nd. ed.), New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990), Fundamental Considerations in Language Testing, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Badger, L. (1984), Providing Experiences for Reading Development, in, Education Department of South Australia, Early Literacy Inservice Course, South Australia.
- Bancroft, W. J. (1972), 'The Psychology of Suggestopedia or Learning Without Stress', The Educational Courier, Feb.

- Bancroft, W. J. (1978), 'The Lozanov Method and its American Adaptations', *Modern Language Journal*, 62/4.
- Bax, S. (2003), 'The End of CLT: A Context Approach to Language Teaching', *ELT Journal*, 57, (3).
- Beglar, D. & Hunt, A. (2002), Implementing Task-based Language Teaching, in, Richards, J. C. & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.), (2002), *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current Practice*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Bell, D. M. (2003), Method and Post-method: Are they Really so Incompatible? *TESOL Quarterly*, 37, (2).
- Bell, D. M. (2007), Do Teachers Think that Methods are Dead? *ELT Journal*, 61, (2), retrieved from: <http://eltj.oxfordjournals.org/search?fulltext=Do+teacher+think+methods+are+dead&submit=yes&x=13&y=12>
- Bergeron, B. S. (1990), What Does the Term Whole Language Mean? Constructing a Definition from the Literature, *Journal of Reading Behavior*, 12, (4).
- Berlitz, M. A. (1887), *Methode Berlitz*, New York: Berlitz and Company.
- Berlitz, Maximilian D. (1907), *Berlitz Method of Teaching Modern Languages, Illustrated English for Children, English Part*.
- Berns, M. S. (1990), *Context of Competence: Sociocultural Considerations in Communicative Language Teaching*, New York: Plenum.

- Bhandari, C. S., et al. (1986), *Teacher English: A Handbook for Teacher and Drill and Exercises in English*, New Delhi: Orient Longman.
- Bhat, Sharada, V. (1998), 'ELT Methods and Materials: A Critical Study', Udaipur: Himanshu Publications.
- Bhatia, K. & Bhatia, D. (1972), 'The Principles and Methods of Teaching', Delhi: Doba House Publishers.
- Bigelow, M. et al, (2006), *Keeping the Language Focus in Content-based ESL Instruction Through Proactive Curriculum-Planning*, TESL Canada, 24, (1).
- Blair, R. W. (1982), *Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching*, Cambridge, MA: Newbury House.
- Blair, R. W. (1991), *Innovative approaches*, in, Celce-Murcia, M. (Ed.), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, Boston, MA: Heinle-Heinle.
- Block, D. (2001), *An Exploration of the Art and Science Debate in Language Education*, in, Bax, M. & Zwart, J. W. (Eds.), *Reflections on Language and Language Learning: In Honour of Arthur Van Essen*, Amsterdam: John Benjamins.
- Bloomfield, L. (1933), *Language*, New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Blumberg, P. (2008), *Developing Learner-Centred Teaching*, San Francisco: Jossey Bass.
- Bolinger, Dwight (1968), *Aspects of Language*, New York: Harcourt, Brace and World.
- Bose, Kshanika (1999), *Teaching of English: A Modern Approach*, Delhi, Doba House, Publishers.

- Bowen D. J., Madsen H. & Hilferty A. (1985), *TESOL Techniques and Procedures*, Rowley, MA: New House.
- Bower, G. H. & Winzenz, D. (1970), Comparison of Associative Learning Strategies, *Psychonomic Science*, 20, <https://dx.doi.org/10.1080/00986280801977519>
- Braun, J. A. & Crumpler, T. P. (2004), The Social Memoir: An Analysis of Developing Reflective Ability in A Pre-service Methods Course, *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 20, (1).
- Breen, M. P. & Candlin, C. N. (1980), *The Essentials of a Communicative Curriculum in Language Teaching*, Washington, D. C: Georgetown University Press.
- Breen, M. P. (1987a), "Contemporary Paradigms in Syllabus Design", Part I and II, in, *Language Teaching* Vol. 20/2.
- Breen, M. P. (1987b), Learner Contributions to Task Design, in Candlin, C. N. & Murphy, D. (Eds.), *Language Learning Tasks*, Englewood Cliffs, N. J., 301, Prentice Hall International.
- Breen, M. P. (1989), The Evaluation Cycle for Language Learning Task, in, Johnson, R. K. (ed.) *The Second Language Curriculum*, Adelaide, Australia: National Curriculum Resource Center.
- Breen M. P., Hird B., Milton M., Oliver R. & Thwaite A. (2001), Making Sense of Language Teaching: Teachers' Principles and Classroom Practices, *Applied Linguistics*, 22.

- Brewington, A. (1995), *The Teaching of Language Teaching*, London: Longman, P. 86.
- Brinton D. M., Snow M. A. & Wesche M. (2006), *Content-based Second Language Instruction*, Michigan: The University of Michigan Press.
- Brockman, B. (1994), *Whole Language: A Philosophy of Literacy Teaching for Adults, Too!* ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. 376 428.
- Broughton, G., et al. (1994), *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*, (2nd. ed.) London: Routledge.
- Brooks-Harper, G. & Shelton, P. W. (2003), *Revisiting Whole Language Development: A Transactional Approach to Learning*, Research for Educational Reform, 81.
- Brown, H. D. (1977), *Some Limitations of CL/CLL Models of Second Language Teaching*, TESOL Quarterly, 11(4).
- Brown, H. D. (1987), *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, (2nd. Ed.), Englewood Cliffs, N. J.: Prentice-Hall.
- Brown, H. D. (1991), *TESOL at Twenty Five: What are the Issues?* TESOL Quarterly, 25.
- Brown, H. D. (1994), *Teaching by Principles: An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*, Prentice-Hall.
- Brown, H. D. (2000), *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, White Plains, NY: Addison Wesley Longman.
- Brown, H. D. (2001). *Teaching by Principles, An Interactive Approach to Language Pedagogy*, New York: AW Longman, Inc.

- Brown, H. D. (2002). English Language Teaching in the “Post-Method” Era: Toward Better Diagnosis, Treatment and Assessment, in, Richards, J. C. & Renandya, W. A. (Eds.), *Methodology in Language Teaching*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brown, H. D. (2007), *Principles of Language Learning and Teaching*, (5th. ed.), NY: Pearson Education, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Brountas, Maria (1987), *Whole Language Really Works*, Teaching K-8, 18.
- Brountas, Maria (1989), “Using the Thematic Approach”, Teaching K-8, Vol. 9, 8.
- Brumfit, C. & Johnson, K. (1979), *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Brumfit, C. (1984), *The Practice of Communicative Teaching*, Pergamon Press in Association with the British Council.
- Bruner, J. (1966a), “The Act of Discovery”, *Concepts in Art Education - An Anthropology of Current Issues*, (ed.) Pappas, George, New York: The Macmillan Company, 1970, 92.
- Bruner, J. (1966b), *Actual Minds, Possible Worlds*, Harvard University Press.
- Bruton, J. B. (1958), *Report of the Nagpur Seminar*, New Delhi, All India Council of Secondary Education.
- Bygate, M., et al. (2001), *Researching Pedagogic Tasks: Second Language Learning, Teaching and Testing*, (Eds.), London: Longman.

- Canagarajah, S. (1999), *Resisting Linguistic Imperialism in English Teaching*, USA: Oxford University Press.
- Canagarajah, S. (2002), *Reconstructing Local Knowledge*, *Journal of Language, Identity and Education*, 1.
- Canale, M. & Swain, M. (1980), *Theoretical Bases of Communicative Approaches to Second Language Teaching and Testing*, *Applied linguistic*, Vol. 1, (1).
- Canale, M. (1983), "From Communicative Competence to Communicative Language Pedagogy", in Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. W. (Ed.), *Language and Communication*, Harlow: Longman.
- Candlin, C. N. (1987), *Towards Task-based Learning*, in, Candlin, C. N. & Murphy, D. (Eds.), (1987) *Language Learning Tasks*, Englewood Cliffs, NJ: Prentice Hall.
- Carless, D. (2012), *Task-based Language Teaching in Confucian-heritage Settings: Prospects and Challenges*, *Ontask [online]* Volume 2, Issue 1. from: <http://www.tblsig.org/wp->
- Carrol, J. B. (1961), *'The Study of Language'*, Cambridge, Mass: Harvard University Press.
- Carroll, J. B. (1966a), *'Psychology, Research and Language Teaching'*, in, *Trends in Language Teaching*, Valdman, (ed.), (1966), New York, McGraw-Hill Book Company.
- Carroll, J. B. (1966b), *The Contribution of Psychological Theory and Educational Research to the Teaching of Foreign Languages*, in, Valdman, A., 108, (ed.), *Trends in language teaching*, New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Carter, R. A. & McCarthy, M. J. (eds), (1988), *Vocabulary and Language Teaching*, London: Longman.
- Cartledge, H. A. & Baly, T. J. C. (1965), *An English Course for French-Speakers*. 4 Vols., London: Longmans.
- Cattell, A. G. (2009), *Re-evaluating Communicative Language Teaching: Wittgenstein and Post-method Pedagogy*, M. A. Thesis presented to the University of Waterloo in German, Waterloo, Canada.
- Celce-Murcia, M. (1991), *Grammar Pedagogy in Second and Foreign Language Teaching*, TESOL Quarterly 25.
- Celce-Murcia M., Dörnyei Z. & Thurrell, S. (1997), *Direct Approaches in L2 Instruction: A Turning Point in Communicative Language Teaching*, TESOL Quarterly, 31.
- Champion, H. C. (1957), *Lectures on Teaching of English In India*, Delhi, O.U.P.
- Chastain, R. K. (1976), *Developing Second Language Skills: Theory to Practice*, Chicago: Random Mc MA.
- Chen, Mingyao (2014), *Post-method Pedagogy and its Influence on EFL Teaching Strategies*, English Language Teaching, 7, (5).
- Cheng, Xiongyong & Moses, S. (2011), *Perceptions and Implementation of Task-based Language Teaching among Secondary School EFL Teachers in China*, International Journal of Business and Social Science, Vol. 2, No. 24, Special Issue, December, 2011.

- Childers, J. (1964), *Foreign Language Teaching*, NY: The Center to Applied Research in Education, Inc.
- Chomsky, N. (1965), *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax*, Cambridge Mass, MIT Press.
- Chomsky, N. (1975), *Reflection on Language*, New York: Random House.
- Chomsky, N. (2002), *Chomsky, On Democracy and Education*, Publisher: Routledge.
- Chomsky, N. (2004a), A Review of B. F. Skinner's Verbal Behavior, in Lust, B. & Foley, C. (eds.), *First Language Acquisition: The Essential Readings*, Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing.
- Chomsky, N. (2004b), Knowledge of Language as a Focus of Inquiry, in Lust, B. & Foley, C. (eds.), *First Language Acquisition: The Essential Readings*, Malden, MA: Blackwell Pub.
- Clark, J. L. (1987), *Curriculum Renewal in School Foreign Language Learning*, OUP.
- Clarke, M. A. (1994), The Dysfunctions of the Theory/Practice Discourse, *TESOL Quarterly*, 28.
- Clarke, M. A. & Silberstein, S. (1998), Problems, Prescriptions and Paradoxes in Second Language Teaching, *TESOL Quarterly*, 22(4).
- Coleman, Algernon, (1929), *The Teaching of Modern Foreign Languages in the United States*, (New York: Macmillan Co., 1929).
- Cook, V. (2008), *Second Language Learning and Language Teaching*, (4th ed.), London: Hodder Education.

- Cornett, C. & Blankenship, L. (1990), *Whole language = Whole learning*, Fastback, 307, Bloomington, IN: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Coughlin, P. & Duff, P. (1994), *Same Task, Different Activities: Analysis of SLA Task from an Activity Theory Perspective*, in, Lantolf, P. & Appel, G. (eds.), *Vygotskian Approaches to Second Language Research*, Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Crandall, J. A. & Tucker, G. R. (1990), *Content-based Instruction in Second and Foreign Languages*, in, Padilla A., Fairchild H. H. & Valadez C. (eds), *Foreign Language Education: Issues and Strategies*, Newbury Park, CA: Sage.
- Crandall, J. A. (1994), *Content-centered Language Learning*, ERIC No.: ED367142, <http://www.eric.ed.gov>.
- Crandall, J. A. (2000), *Language Teacher Education*, *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 20.
- Crookes, G. (1986), *Task Classification: A Cross-disciplinary Review*, Technical Report No. 4, Honolulu: University of Hawaii, at, Manoa, Social Science Research Institute, Centre for Second Language Classroom Research.
- Curran, C. A. (1961), *Counseling Skills Adapted to the Learning of Foreign Languages*, *Bulletin of the Menninger Clinic*, xxv.
- Curran, C. A. (1972), *Counseling Learning: A Whole Person Model for Education*, New York, NY: Grune and Stratton.
- Curran, C. A. (1976), *Counseling Learning in Second Languages*, Apple River, III: Apple River Press.

- Curtain, H. A. & Pesola, C. A. (1994), *Language and Children: Making the Match*, (2nd. ed.), NY: Longman.
- Decanny, F. R. (1963), *Techniques and Procedures in Second Language Teaching*, Quezon City, Philippines: Phoenix Publishing House.
- Dendrinos, Bessie (1992), *The EFL Textbook and Ideology*, Athens: Grivas.
- Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (1986), *Teaching Techniques in English as a Second Language*, Oxford: OUP.
- Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2003), *Teaching Language: From Grammar to Grammar*, Boston, MA: Heinle.
- Diane-Larsen-Freeman, (2009), *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, New Delhi: CUP.
- Diane-Larsen-Freeman & Anderson, M. (2011), *Techniques and Principles in Language Teaching*, (3rd. ed.), London, England: Oxford University Press.
- Diller, K. C. (1978), *The Language Teaching Controversy*, Rowley, Mass: Newbury House Publishers, Chicago.
- Dixon, R. J. (1960), *Practical Guide to the Teaching of English as a Foreign Language*, Regents Publishing Company, Division of Simon & Schuster, INC.
- Dodson, C. J. (1963), "The Bilingual Method", Pamphlet No.: 9, Second Impression, Aberystwyth: University College of Wales.
- Dodson, C. J. (1967), *Language Teaching and the Bilingual Method*, London: Sir Issac Pitman & Sons, Ltd.

- Duncan, P. (2004), *Visual Culture Isn't Just Visual: Multiliteracy, Multimodality and Meaning*, Studies in Art education.
- Earl, W. Stevick (1976), 'Memory Meaning and Method: Some Psychological Perspectives on Language Learning', Rowley Mass: Newbury House.
- Earl, W. Stevick (1980), *Teaching languages: A Way and Ways*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Earl, W. Stevick (1982), *Teaching and Learning Language*, CUP.
- Earl, W. Stevick (1990), *Humanism in Language Teaching: A Critical Perspective*, OUP.
- Ediger, M., et al. (2003), *Teaching English Successfully*, Discovery Pub. House.
- Edelsky D. E., Altwerger B. & Flores B. (1991), *What's Whole Language: What's the Difference*, Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Edelsky C., Draper K. and Smith K. (1983), Hopkin' em in at the Start of School in a 'Whole Language Classroom, *Anthropology and Education Quarterly*, 14.
- Edward, Anthony (1963), "Approach, Method and Techniques", *English Teaching Forum* B, 6.
- Edwards, C. & Willis, J. (2005), *Teachers Exploring Tasks in English Language Teaching*. (1st ed.), Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Elliott, J. (1993), *Reconstructing Teacher Education: Teacher Development*, London: Falmer Press.
- Ellis, R. (1993), "The Structural Syllabus and Second Language Acquisition", *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 27, No. 1 (Spring, 1993).

- Ellis, R. (1994), *The Study of Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford University.
- Ellis, R. (2003), *Task-based Language Learning and Teaching*, OUP.
- Ellis, R. (2005), *Principles of Instructed Language Learning*, System, 33 (2).
- Ellis, R. (2009), *Task-based Language Teaching: Sorting out the Misunderstandings*, International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 19/3.
- Ellis, R. (2014), *Taking the Critics to Task: The Case for Task Based Teaching*, National University of Singapore:
https://www.fas.nus.edu.sg/cls/CLaSIC/classic2014/Proceedings/ellis_rod.pdf[accessed 24/12/17]
- Eskey, D. E. (1997), *Syllabus Design in Content-based Instruction*, in, Snow, M. A. &
- Evans, S. (2013), *Designing Tasks for the Business English Classroom*, ELT Journal, 67 (3).
- Farrell, T. C. (2007), *Reflective Practice for Language Teachers*, from: <http://www.reflectiveinquiry.ca/wp-content/uploads/2016/06/Reflective-practice-Farrell.pdf>
- Farris, P. J. and Kaczmariski, D. (1988), *Whole Language: A Closer Look*, Contemporary Education, 59.
- Feng, Shan-shan (2017), *An Application of Total Physical Response to Primary English Teaching-A Case Study of Qingtong Primary School*, US-China Foreign Language, January 2017, Vol. 15, No. 1, PP. 36-42.
doi:10.17265/1539-8080/2017.01.006
- Fernandes, Arung (2012), *The Further Explanation of Total Physical Response (TPR) Method and*

Direct Method. Retrieved on 8th May 2019 from: <https://usnpendbing.wordpress.com/2015/07/10/the-further-explanation-of-total-physical-response-tpr-method-and-direct-method/>

- Ferreiro, E. & Teberosky, A. (1982), *Literacy Before Schooling*, Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Finch, A. E. (2006), Task-based Supplementation: Achieving High School Textbook Goals Through Form-focused Interaction, *ELT*, 61, (1).
- Finocchiaro, M. (1971), Myth and Realty in TESOL: A Plan for a Broader View, *TESOL Quarterly*, 5.
- Finocchiaro, M. & Brumfit, J. C. (1983), *The Functional-Notional Approach: From Theory to Practice*, New York: Oxford University Press.
- Firth, J. R. (1957), *Papers in Linguistics, 1934-1951*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Fountas, Irene C. & Hannigan, Irene L. (1989), "Making Sense of WHOLE LANGUAGE: The Pursuit of Informed Teaching", *Childhood Education*, Vol. 65, 3.
- Francois, Gouin, (1880), 'The Art of Teaching and Studying Languages', Translated by Swan, H. & Betes, V. (1892), London: George Philip & Son.
- Frank, Smith (1975), *Comprehension and Learnings: A Conceptual Frame Work for Teachers*, New York, NY: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Franke, F. (1884), *Die praktische Sp racherlernmmg auf Grund der Psychologic*, Old del'

- Physiologie de, Sprache dargestellt. Leipzig: O. R. Reisland.
- Freeman, D. & Freeman, Y. (1988), Whole Language Content Lessons for ESL Students, ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. PP. 295 468.
- Freeman, Yvonne S. & Freeman, David E. (1992), Whole Language for Second Language Learners Portsmouth, NH: Heineman.
- Fries, Charles C. (1945), Teaching and Learning English as a Foreign Language, Ann Arbor: The University of Michigan Press, Print.
- Fries, Charles C. (1952), The Structure of English, New York: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich, Inc.
- Fries, Charles C. (1960), A New Approach to Language Learning, (A brief note of explanation).
- Fries, Charles C. (1963), Linguistics and Reading. New York: Holt, Rinehart & Winston.
- Frisby, A. W. (1957), Teaching English: Notes and Comments on Teaching English Overseas, London: Longman.
- Gambrell, L. B., et al. (2002), Early Childhood and Elementary Literature-based Instruction: Current Perspectives and Special Issues. Reading Online. Retrieved from: <http://www.cckm.ca/CLR/phonics.htm>
- Gao, L. (2011), Eclecticism or Principled Eclecticism, Creative Education, 2, (4).
- Garcia, R. (2001), Instructor's Notebook: How to Apply TPR for Best Results, (4th. Ed.), Lost Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
- Garoon, Wheeler (2013), Language Teaching Through the Ages, London: Routledge.

- Gattegno, Caleb (1972), *Teaching Foreign Languages in Schools: The Silent Way*, (2nd. ed.), New York: Educational Solutions.
- Gattegno, Caleb (1976), *The Common Sense of Teaching Foreign Languages*, New York: Educational Solutions.
- Gebhard J. G., Gaitan S. & Oprandy, R. (1990), *Beyond Prescription: The Student Teacher as Investigator*, in, Richards, J. C. & Nunan, D. (Eds.), *Second Language Teacher Education*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Geetha, Nagarajan (1996), *English Language Teaching: Approaches, Methods and Techniques*.
- Geetha, Nagarajan (2010), *English Language Teaching Approaches, Methods and Techniques*, (2nd. Ed.), Orient Blackswan Private Limited.
- Genesee, F. (1994), *Integrating Language and Content: Lessons from Immersion*. Educational Practice Report 11, National Center for Research on Cultural Diversity and Second Language Learning.
- Georgi, Lozanov (1978), 'Suggestology and Outlines of Suggestopedy', New York: Gordon and Breach.
- Georgi, Lozanov (1982), *Suggestology and Suggestopedy*, in Blair, R. W. (Ed.), *Innovative Approaches to Language Teaching*.
- Gilliland B. E., James R. K. & Bowman J. T. (1994), *Response to the Lazarus, A. A. & Beutler, L. E. Article "On Technical Eclecticism"*, *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 72.

- Goodman, K. S. (1976), Reading: A Psycholinguistic Guessing Game, in, Singer, H. & Ruddell, R. B. (Eds.), *Theoretical Models and Processes of Reading*, Newark, D. E.: International Reading Association.
- Goodman, K. S. & Goodman, Y. M. (1981), A Whole-language Comprehension Centered View of Reading Development, Occasional Paper No.: 1, Program in Language and Literacy, University of Arizona, Tucson.
- Goodman, K. S. (1986), *What's Whole in Whole Language?* Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann Educational Books.
- Goodman, K. S. (1991), Beginning to Read: A Critique by Literacy Professionals and a Response by Marilyn Jager Adams, *The Reading Teacher*, 21, (4).
- Goodman, K. S. (1992), I Didn't Found Whole Language, *Journal of The Reading Teacher*, 46, 3.
- Grabe, W. & Stoller, F. L. (1997), Content-based Instruction: Research Foundations, in, Snow, M. A. & Brinton, D. (eds.), *The Content-based Classroom: Perspectives on Integrating Language and Content*, White Plains, NY: Addison Wesley, Longman.
- Gregg, K. R. (1984), Krashen's Monitor and Occam's Razor, *Applied Linguistics*, 5(2).
- Guariento, W. & Morley, J. (2001), Text and Task Authenticity in EFL Classroom, *ELT Journal*, V. 55, Issue 4, Oct. 2001.
- Gurrey, P. (1966), *Teaching of English as a Foreign Language*, London: Longmans.

- Habermas, J. (1970), Towards a Theory of Communicative Competence, in Dreitzel, H. (ed.), *Recent Sociology*, No.2, Collier, Macmillan.
- Halliday M. A. K., McIntosh A. & Stevens P. (1964), *The Linguistic Sciences and Language Teaching*, London: Longmans.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1970), "Language Structure and Language Function," in, Lyons, J. (ed.), *New Horizons in Linguistics*, Penguin Books, Harmondsworth.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1975), *Learning How to Mean: Explorations in the Development of Language*, London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1978), *Language as Social Semiotic: The Social Interaction of Language and Meaning*, London: Edward Arnold.
- Halliday, M. A. K. (1985), *An Introduction to Functional Grammar*, London: Arnold.
- Hammerly, H. (1991), *Fluency and Accuracy: Toward Balance in Language Teaching and Learning*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters LTD.
- Handoyo, Puji Widodo (2005), Teaching Children Using a Total Physical Response (TPR) Method: Rethinking, *Journal Bahasa dan Seni*, Tahun, 33, No. 2.
- Harmer, Jeremy (2007), *The Practice of English Language Teaching*, (4th. ed.), Harlow, England: Pearson Longman.
- Hawkes, M. L. (2012), Using Task Repetition to Direct Learner Attention and Focus on Form, *ELT Journal*, 66 (3).
- Heald-Taylor, G. (1986), *Whole Language Strategies for ESL Students*, Language and Literacy

Series, ERIC Document Reproduction Service.

- Hedgecock, Jogn & Sandra, Pucci (1994), Whole Language Application to ESL in Secondary and Higher Education in the FLES Classroom: Adapting Strategies to Teach Reading and Writing. *Foreign Language Annual*, Vol. 27, No. 3, 42.
- Hedge, T. (2000), *Teaching and Learning in the Language Classroom*. (1st ed.), Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hernandez, A. (2003), *Making Content Instruction Accessible for English Language Learners*, Rowland Heights, CA: International Reading Association.
- Hilgard, E. R. & Bower, G. H. (1966), *The One's of Learning*, New York: Appleton Century Crafts.
- Holliday, A. (1994a), Student Culture and English Language Education: An Interactional Perspectives, *Language Culture and Curriculum*, Vol. 7, No. 2.
- Holliday, A. (1994b), *Appropriate Methodology and Social Context*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Hornby, A. S. (1950), The Situational Approach in Language Teaching, A Series of Three Articles in *English Language Teaching*, 4.
- Howatt, A. R. P. (1984), *A History of English Language Teaching*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Hu, Tieqiu (2000), TPR-A New Way to Teach, *Chinese Sci-tech Translation*, Vol.1.
- Huebner, T. (1998), *Methodological Considerations in Data Collection for Language Learning in a*

- Study Abroad Context, *Frontiers: The Interdisciplinary Journal of Study Abroad*, 4.
- Huebner, T. (1998), *Linguistics, Applied Linguistics and Second Language Acquisition Theories*, in, Byrnes, H. (ed.), *Learning Foreign and Second Languages: Perspectives in Research Scholarship*, New York: Modern Languages Acquisition.
- Hughes, A., (1983), *Second Language Learning and Communicative Language Teaching*, London: Academic Press.
- Hymes, D. (1971), *On Communicative Competence*, Pennsylvania: Pennsylvania Press.
- Jack, Kimball (1996), 'What Are We Doing When We Talk Science?' *The Internet TESL Journal*, Vol. 8, Aug., 1996.
<http://www.aitech.ac.jp/~iteslj/>.
- Jacobs, Leland B. (1989), "What Is Whole Language?" *Teaching K-8*, Vol. 19, No. 8.
- Jadeja, R. P. & Natraj, S. (2004), *Communicative Approach*, Ahmedabad: Gurjar Sahitya Bhavan.
- Jain, R. K. (1923), *Appropriate Methodology and Social Context*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press: 27.
- Jain, R. K. (1968), *Essentials of English Teaching*, Agra: Kailash, Printing Press.
- Jay, J. K. & Johnson, K. L. (2002), *Capturing Complexity: A Typology of Reflective Practice for Teacher Education*, Teaching and Teacher Education, 18.
- Johnson, R. K. & Morrow, K. (1981), *Communication in the Classroom*, Essex: Longman.

- Johnson, R. K. (1982), *Communicative Syllabus Design and Methodology*, Oxford: Pergamon.
- Johnson, K. (1984), "Skill Psychology and Communicative Methodology", Paper Presented at the RELC Seminar, Singapore.
- Kelly, L. G. (1969), *25 Centuries of Language Teaching*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Kelly, M. (2001), *Towards an Intercultural Practice of Language Teaching*, in, Kelly M., Elliot I. & Fant L., *Third Level, Third Space, Intercultural Communication and Language in European Higher Education*, Bern: Peter Lang.
- Khalique, M. A. (1994), *A Critical Investigation into the Methods of Teaching English in the Secondary Schools of Aurangabad District*, Unpublished Doctoral Thesis Dr. BAMU, Aurangabad.
- Kilpatrick, W. H. (1925), *Foundations of method: Informal Talks on Teaching*, New York: Macmillan.
- King, A. (1993), *From Sage on the Stage to Guide on the Side*, *College Teaching*, 41, (1).
- Koba N., Ogawa N. & Wilkinson D. (2000), *Using the Community Language Learning Approach to Cope with Language Anxiety*, *The Internet TESL Journal*, 6, (11). Retrieved from <http://iteslj.org/Articles/Koba-CLL.html>.
- Kohli, A. L. (1970), *Techniques of Teaching English*, Dhanapat Rai & Son, Delhi.
- Kohli, Vijaya (1989), *The Communicative Approach to Language Teaching: Theoretical Limits*, New Delhi: Reliance Publishing House.

- Krahnke, K. (1987), *Approach to Syllabus Design for Foreign Language Teaching*, New York: Prentice Hall.
- Krashen, S. D. (1981), *Second Language Acquisition and Second Language Learning*, Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen, S. D. (1982), *Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford: Pergamon.
- Krashen S. D., Scarcella R. C. & Long M. H. (eds.), (1982), *Child-adult Differences in Second Language Acquisition*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Krashen, S. D. & Terrell, T. D. (1983), *The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom*, Pergamon and Alemany.
- Krashen, S. D. (1985), *The Input Hypothesis*, London: Longman.
- Krashen, S. D. (2002), *Defending Whole Language: The Limits of Phonics Instruction and the Efficacy of Whole Language Instruction*, *Reading Improvement*, Vol. 39, No. 1. Retrieved from: www.sdkrashen.com/content/articles/2002_defending_whole_language.pdf
- Kripa, K. Gautam, (1988), *“English Language Teaching: A Critical Study of Methods and Approaches”*, New Delhi: Harman Publishing House.
- Kulkarni, A. D. (1972), ‘A Brief Survey of the Principal Methods of Teaching English’, cited in, *Proceedings of the Seminar on ‘The Teaching of English’*, the Department of English, M. U., Aurangabad.

- Kumar, C. P. (2013), The Eclectic Method: Theory and its Application to the Learning of English, *International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications*, 3, (6), ISSN. 2250-3553.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (1994), The Post-method Condition: Emerging Strategies for Second/Foreign Language Teaching, *TESOL Quarterly*, Vol. 28, No. 1:3.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2001), Toward a Post-method Pedagogy, *TESOL Quarterly*, 35:537-560, doi:10.2307/3588427.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003a), Critical Language Pedagogy: A Post-method Perspective on English Language Teaching, *World Englishes*, 22, (4).
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2003b), *Beyond Methods: Macrostrategies for Language Teaching*, New Haven, C. T.: Yale University Press.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006a), *Understanding Language Teaching: From Method to Post-method*, Mahwah, N. J.: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Kumaravadivelu, B. (2006b), TESOL Methods: Changing Tracks, Challenging Trends, *TESOL Quarterly*, 40, (1).
- Kurian, J. (2006), "Adapting Classroom Practices and Testing in Communicative Language Teaching in Chhattisgarh", *English Language Teaching News: A Newsletter of the ELTIs in India*, Vol. 5, (1 & 2).
- Kutz, E. & Roskelly, H. (1991), *An Unquiet Pedagogy*, Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Lado, R. (1964), *Language Teaching: A Scientific Approach*, New York: McGraw-Hill.

- Lamb, H. & Best, D. (1990), Language and Literacy the ESL Whole Language Connection, ERIC Document Reproduction Service, No. 324, 915.
- Lantolf, J. (2006), Sociocultural Theory and L2: State of the Art, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28.
- Larrivee, B. (2008), Development of a Tool to Assess Teachers' Level of Reflective Practice, *Reflective Practice: International and Multidisciplinary Perspectives*, 9, (3).
- Lazarus, A. A. & Beutler, L. E. (1993), "On Technical Eclecticism", *Journal of Counseling and Development*, 71, (4).
- Leaver, B. L. & Willis, J. R. (2004), *Task-based Instruction in Foreign Language Education*, Washington DC, Georgetown University Press.
- Legutke, M. & Thomas, H. (1993), *Process and Experience in the Language Classroom*, London: Longman.
- Li, D. (1998), "It's Always More Difficult Than You Plan and Imagine": Teachers' Perceived Difficulties in Introducing the Communicative Approach in South Korea, *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, (4).
- Li, W. (2012), An Eclectic Method of College English Teaching, *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, 3, (1).
- Li, Z. C. (2007), Whole Language: A Holistic View of Instruction, *Journal of Shijiazhuang University*, 1.
- Lillard, P. P. (1972), *Montessori: A Modern Approach*. Schocken Books Incorporated.

- Ling, Pan (2012), The “Whole Language” Theory and Its Application to the Teaching of English Reading, *English Language Teaching*, Vol. 5, No.: 3.
- Linse, Caroline T. (2005), *Young Learners: Practical English Language Teaching*, New York: McGraw-Hill Companies, Inc.
- Linse, Caroline T. (2006), *Practical English Language Teaching: Young Learners*, New York: McGraw-Hill Education, (Asia).
- Littlewood, T. W. (1981), *Communicative Language Teaching: An Introduction*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Littlewood, T. W. (1984), *Foreign and Second Language Learning: Language Acquisition Research and Its Implications for the Classroom*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Littlewood, T. W. (2004), The Task-based Approach: Some Questions and Suggestions, *ELT Journal*, 58, (4).
- Littlewood, T. W. (2007), Communicative and Task-based Language Teaching in East Asian Classrooms, *Language Teaching*, 40, (3), PP. 243-249.
- Long, M. H. & Crookes, G. (1992), Three Approaches to Task-based Syllabus Design, *TESOL Quarterly*, 26 (1), 27-56, <http://dx.doi.org/10.2307/3587368>.
- Long, M. H. & Crookes, G. (1993), Units of Analysis in Syllabus Design: The Case for Task, in, Crookes, G. & Gass, S. M. (eds.), *Tasks in a Pedagogical Context: Integrating Theory and Practice*, Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

- Long, M. H. (2014), *Second Language Acquisition and Task-Based Language Teaching*, John Wiley & Sons Inc.
- Long, M. H. (1985), Input and Second Language Acquisition Theory, in, Gass, S. M. & Madden, G. C. (eds.), *Input in Second Language Acquisition*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Loschky, L. & Bley-Vroman, R. (1993), Grammar and Task-based Methodology, in, Crookes, G. & Gass, S. (eds.), *Tasks and Language Learning: Integrating Theory and Practice*, Clevedon, UK: Multilingual Matters.
- Luo L., He F. & Yang F. (2001), *Introduction to Comprehensive Teaching Methods in College English Teaching*. Foreign Language World, 4.
- Mackey, W. F. (1965), *Language Teaching Analysis*, London: Longman.
- Mackey, W. F. (1972), *Bilingual Education in Binational School*, Rowley Mass, Newbury House.
- Marshall, S. & Baker, J. (2000), *Community Language Learning*, English Teaching Forum, 16.
- McDougall, W. (1949), *An Outline of Psychology*, (13th ed.), Methuen, London.
- McLaughlin, B. (1987), *Theories of Second-language Learning*, London: Edward Arnold.
- Mellow, J. D. (2002), Towards Principled Eclecticism in Language Teaching: The Two-Dimensional Model and Centering Principle, *Teaching English as a Second Language Journal*, 5 (4): A-1.
- Menon, T. K. & Patel, M. S. (1964), *The Teaching of English as a Foreign Language*, Baroda, Acharya Book Depot, Print.

- Mersereau Y., Glover M. & Cherland M. (1989), *Dancing on the Edge*, Language Arts, 66.
- Met, M. (1991), *Learning Language Through Content: Learning Content Through Language*, Foreign Language Annals, 24, (4).
- Michael, West (1960), *Learning to Read a Foreign Language*, London: Longman.
- Michael, Lewis (1993), *The Lexical Approach, The State of ELT and the Way Forward*, Hove, England: Language Teaching Publications.
- Miller, W.R. & Ervin, S. (1964), "The Development of Grammar in Child Language", in, Bellugi, U. & Brown, R. (eds.), *Child Development*.
- Moats, L. (2007), *Whole Language High Jinks: How to Tell When "Scientifically-Based Reading Instruction" Isn't*, Washington, DC: Thomas B., Fordham Institute.
- Mohamad, Aslam (1997), *Developing a Learner-centered ELT Curriculum in India: Trends and Issues*, Bareilly: Prakash Book Depot.
- Mohammad, Aslam (2003), 'Teaching of English', Foundation Books, New Delhi.
- Mohan, B. (1986), *Language as a Medium of Learning*, in, *Language and Content*, Reading, MA: Addison Wesley.
- Mohan, B. & Beckett, G. H. (2003), *A Functional Approach to Research on Content-based Language Learning: Recasts in Causal Explanations*, Modern Language Journal, 87, (iii).
- Moore, F. W. (1961), *Readings in Cross Cultures*, New Haven, CN: HRAF Press.
- Morrow, K. (1981), *English Language Teaching: A Historical Overview and Current Trends*.

- Mosenthal, P. B. (1989), *The Whole Language Approach: Teachers between a Rock and a Hard Place*, The Reading Teacher, 42.
- Moskowitz, G. (1978), *Caring and Sharing in the Foreign Language Class*, Rowley, Mass.: Newbury House.
- Moulton, William G. (1961), 'Linguistics and Language Teaching in the United States, 1940-1960' in, Christine Mohrman, Alf Sommerfelt & Joshua Whatmough, (ed.), in, *Trends in European and American Linguistics, 1930-1960*, Utrecht: Spectrum.
- Moustafa, Margaret (1993), *Recoding in Whole Language Reading Instruction*, Language Arts, National Council of Teachers of English. Retrieved from: <http://www.cckm.ca/CLR/phonics.htm>
- Muhren, A. (2003), *Total Physical Response (TPR): and Effective Language Learning Method at Beginner/Intermediate Levels*, Home.planet.nl/~mhren000/tpr/primer_tpr.pdf.
- Mukalel, J. (1998), *Approaches to English Language Teaching*, New Delhi: Discovery.
- Munby, J. (1978), *Communicative Syllabus Design*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Myers, J. W. (1993), *Making Sense of Whole Language*, Fastback, 346, Bloomington: Phi Delta Kappa Educational Foundation.
- Nacino-Brown, R., et al. (1992), *Curriculum and Instruction: An Introduction to Methods of Teaching*, London & Basingstoke: Macmillan Education Ltd.

- Nagaraj, P. (2009), Application of Community Language Learning for Effective Teaching, *The Modern Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 1:3.
- Naiman N., Frohlich M., Stern H. H. & Todesco A. (1978), *The Good Language Learner*, Toronto, Ontario: Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.
- Nattinger, J. R. (1984), Communicative Language Teaching: A New Metaphor, *TESOL Quarterly*, 18.
- Newmark, L. and Reibel, D. A. (1968), Necessity and Sufficiency in Language Learning, *IRAL*, Vol. 6, No.: 2.
- Newton, J. (2001), Options for Vocabulary Learning through Communication Tasks, *ELT Journal*, 55(1).
- Nilson, Brooks (1964), *Language and Language Learning*, New York, Harcourt Brace.
- Norris, J. M., et al. (1998), *Designing Second Language Performance Assessments*, Honolulu: University of Hawaii Press.
- Nunan, D. (1987), Communicative Language Teaching: Make it Work, *ELT Journal*, Vol. 41, Issue 2, 1 April 1987.
- Nunan, D. (1989), *Designing Tasks for the Communicative Classroom*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. (1991a), *Language Teaching Methodology: A Textbook for Teachers*, New York: Prentice-Hall.
- Nunan, D. (1991b), Communicative Tasks and the Language Curriculum, in *TESOL*, 25, 2.
- Nunan, D. (2001), Tradition and Change in the ELT Curriculum. Plenary Presentation at the Third

- International Symposium on ELT in China, Beijing, China.
- Nunan, D. (2003), *Practical English Language Teaching*, New York, McGraw-Hill.
- Nunan, D. (2004), *Task-Based Language Teaching*, Cambridge University Press.
- Nunan, D. Keobke, K. (1995), Task Difficulty from the Learner's Perspective: Perceptions and Reality, *Hong Kong Papers in Linguistics and Language Teaching*, 18.
- Nunan, D. (2005), Important Tasks of English Education: Asia-wide and beyond, *Asian EFL Journal*, 7 (3).
- Octaviany, Y. (2007), The Application of Total Physical Response in Teaching English Vocabulary to the Fourth Graders, Retrieved April 14th. (2009), from: <http://digilib.unnes.ac.id/gsd/collect/skripsi/archives/HASHe75.dir/doc.pdf>
- Oller, J. W. & Ricard-Amato, P. A. (1983), *Methods That Work*, Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Omaggio, A. (1986), *Teaching Language in Context*, Boston: Heinle, and Heinle.
- Osterman, K. F. & Kottkamp, R. B. (1993), *Reflective Practice for Educators: Improving Schooling through Professional Development*, Thousand Oaks, CA: Corwin Press.
- Oxford, R. (1990), *Language Learning Strategies: What every Teacher Should know*, Boston: Wadsworth Publishing Company.
- Pahuja, N. P. (1995), *Teaching of English*, Delhi: Amol Publication.
- Palmer, H. E. & Palmer, D. (1959), *English Through*

Actions, Longmans Green.

- Palmer, H. E. (1964), 'The Principles of Language Study', London, Oxford University Press.
- Palmer, H. E. (1969), *The Scientific Study and Teaching of Language*, London: OUP.
- Patsy, M. L. & Spada, N. (2006), *How Languages are Learned*, Oxford Handbooks for Language Teachers, (London: Oxford Publication) p. 115.
- Patsy, M. L. & Spada, N. (2010), *Second Language Acquisition*, in, Norbert Schemitt, (editor), *An Introduction to Applied Linguistics*, Hodder Education, London.
- Paul, G. La Forge (n.d.), *Community Language Learning: A Pilot Study*. Retrieved on 9/4/2019 from: <https://pdfs.semanticscholar.org>
- Paul, G. La Forge (1983), *Counseling and Culture in Second Language Acquisition*, Oxford, England: Pergamon Press.
- Peachey, N. (2003), *Content-based Instruction*, (BBC 'Think' Article), Retrieved in January, 21, 2011, from: <http://www.teachingenglish.org.uk/think/articles/content-based-instruction>.
- Peacock, M. (1997), "The Effect of Authentic Materials on the Motivation of EFL Learners", *ELT Journal*, 51, 2 (1997), Oxford Journal, Web., 3 Feb, 2016.
- Pennycook, A. (1989), "The Concept of Method: Interested Knowledge, and Politics of Language Teaching", *TESOL Quarterly*, 23/4.
- Peter Hubbard, Hywel Jones, et al. (1983), *A Training Course for TEFL*, ELBS, OUP.

- Piepho, H. E. (1981), 'Establishing Objectives in the Teaching of English', in, Candlin, C. N. (eds.), *The Communicative Teaching of English: Principles and An Exercise Typology*, London: Longman.
- Ping, Zhang (n.d.), *Implementing the Whole Language Approach in "Selected Readings of English and American Literature" Course*. Retrieved from: <http://www.celea.org.cn/pastversion/lw/pdf/zhangping.pdf>
- Pittman, G. A., et al. (1965), *Teaching Situational English*, London: Longman.
- Pittman, G. A. (1966), *Activating the Use of Prepositions*, London: Longman.
- Pittman, G. A. (1963), *Teaching Structural English*, Brisbane, Jacaranda
- Prabhu, N. S. (1982), *The Communicational Teaching Project, South India, Mimeo*, Madras: The British Council
- Prabhu, N. S. (1983), 'Procedural Syllabuses' SEAMEO, Singapore Regional Language Centre.
- Prabhu, N. S. (1987), *Second Language Pedagogy*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Prabhu, N. S. (1990), *There is no Best Method Why?* TESOL Quarterly, 24, (2).
- Prator, C. & Celce-Murcia, M. (1979), *An Outline of Language Teaching Approaches*, in, Celce-Murcia, M. & McIntosh, L. (Ed.), (1979), *Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language*, New York: Newbury House.
- Prator, C. H. (1980), *In Search of a Method*, Cambridge: Winthrop Publishers.

- Pui, Lee Liu (2013), Implementation of the Whole Language in Hong Kong Kindergartens: The Teachers' Perceptive, *Open Journal of Modern Linguistics* 2013. Vol.3, No.3.
(<http://www.scirp.org/journal/ojml>)
- Rao, K. Venugopal (2003), *Methods of Teaching English*, Neelkamal Publications, Second Edition.
- Redmond, M. L. (1994), *The Whole Language Approach in the FLES Classroom: Adapting*.
- Reid, J. (2001), Writing, in, Carter, R. & Nunan, D. (Eds.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of other Languages*, Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Reutzel, D. R. and Hollingsworth, P. M. (1988), *Whole Language and the Practitioner*, *Academic Therapy*, 23.
- Rich, S. J. (1985), *Whole Language: The Inner Dimension*, *English Quarterly*, 18.
- Richards, J. C. (1971), *A Non-contrastive Approach to Error Analysis*, *ELT Journal*, 25.
- Richards, J. C. (1974), *Error Analysis: Perspectives on Second Language Acquisition*, London, Longman.
- Richards, J. C. (1984), *The Secret Life of Methods*, *TESOL Quarterly*, 18, (1).
- Richards, J. C. (1985), *The Context of Language Teaching*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (1986), 'Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching', (15th. Printing, 1999), Cambridge: CUP.

- Richards J. C., Gipe J. P. and Thompson B. (1987), Teachers' Beliefs about Good Reading Instruction, *Reading Psychology*, 8.
- Richards, J. C. (1990), Beyond Methods, in, Richards, J. C. (Ed.), *The Language Teaching Matrix*, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (1994), 'Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching: A Description and Analysis, CUP.
- Richards, J. C. (1997), Preparing Language Teachers for Tomorrow's Language Classrooms, in, Jacobs, G. M. (ed.), *Language Classrooms of Tomorrow: Issues and Responses*, 38, Singapore, SEAMEO Regional Language Center.
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (2001), reprint, (2009), 'Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching', Cambridge: CUP, P. 50
- Richards, J. C. (2001), *Curriculum Development in Language Teaching*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. (2001), *Teaching Listening and Speaking: From Theory to Practice*, New York: Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (2002), 'Approaches and Methods in Language Teaching', (2nd. Ed.), CUP.
- Richards, J. C. & Schmidt, R. W. (2002), *Dictionary of Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, London, Longman.
- Richards, J. C. (2006a), Theories of Teaching in Language Teaching, in, *Methodology in Language Teaching: An Anthology of Current*

- Practice, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press. <http://www.cambridge.org>
- Richard, J. C. (2006b), *Communicative Language Teaching Today*, Cambridge University Press.
- Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, S. T. (2006), "English Raven E.S.L./E.F.L. Resources", 7th February, Web. June, 2013.
- Ridge, E. (2000), *Beyond Mere Communication*, *Per Linguam*, 16, (2), doi.org/10.5785/16-2139.
- Rigg, P. (1991), *Whole Language in TESOL*, *TESOL Quarterly*, 25, (3).
- Rivers, W. M. (1986), *Teaching Foreign Language Skills*, Chicago: Chicago University Publication.
- Rivers, W. M. (1970), *Translation in Foreign Language Pedagogy: The Rise and Fall of the Grammar Translation Method*.
- Rivers, W. M. (1983), *Communicating Naturally in a Second Language Teaching*, OUP, New York.
- Rivers, W. M. (1991), *The Psychologist and the Foreign Language Teacher*, Illinois: University of Chicago Press.
- Rodgers, T. (2001), *Language Teaching Methodology*, (ERIC Issue Paper), Washington, DC: ERIC Clearinghouse on Languages and Linguistics.
- Roi, B. C. (2001), *Method Teaching of English*, Prakashan Kendra, Lucknow.
- Rogers, Carl R. (1951), *Client-centered Therapy*, Boston, Houghton Mifflin.
- Ross, J. S. (1951), *Ground Work of Educational Psychology*, George, G. Harrup, London.

- Rouse, W. H. D. (1925), *Latin on the Direct Method*, London: University of London Press.
- Sabri, Koc (2011), 'Language Teaching Approaches: An Overview', in, Celce-Murcia, (1991), *Teaching English as a Foreign Language*, (2nd. Ed.) Boston, Massachusetts: Heinle & Heinle Publishes.
- Sachdev, M. S. (1983), *Teaching of English in India*, Ludhiana: Prakash Brothers Educational Publishers.
- Sanchez, A. C. & Obando, G. (2008), 'Is Colombia Ready for Bilingualism?' Profile 9: 181195, National University of Colombia, Colombia, quoted in, *The Importance of Post-method Pedagogy in an EFL Setting Like Colombia*, Diego Fernando Paredes Acosta (2014). <http://biblioteca.udenar.edu.co:8085/atenea/biblioteca/90429.pdf>
- Saengboon, S. (2010), *Post-Method Pedagogy and Thai EFL Teachers: Opportunities and Challenges*, National Institute of Development Administration.
- Saraswathi, V. (2004), *English Language Teaching: Principles and Practice*, India, Chennai: Orient Longman.
- Saroj, Veerkar, et al. (2005), *Aashayayukta Adhyapan Padhatti: English*, YCMOU, Nasik.
- Sastry, H. N. L. (1970), "The Bilingual Method of Teaching English: An Experiment", in *RELC Journal*, 2.
- Sauvignon, S. J. (1983), *Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice*, Reading,

- Mass: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company.
- Sauvignon, S. J. (1991), "Communicative Language Teaching: State of Art", TESOL Quarterly, Vol.25, No.2, Summer.
- Sauveur, Lambert, (1875), Introduction to the Teaching of Living Language Without Grammar or Dictionary, Boston.
- Schwarzer, D. (2001), Whole Language in a Foreign Language Class: From Theory to Practice, Foreign Language Annals, 34.
- Scott, D. H. (1946), Language Teaching in the New Education, London: University of London Press.
- Scott, R. & Page, M. (1982), The Subordination of Teaching to Learning: A Seminar Conducted by Dr. Caleb Gattegno, ELT Journal, 36, (4).
- Scrivener, J. (2005), "Learning Teaching", Oxford: Mac-Millan.
- Seedhouse, P. (1999), Task-Based Interaction, ELT Journal, 53, (3).
- Selman, M. (1977), The Silent Way: Insights for ESL, TESL Talk, 8.
- Sharma, K. L. (1973), Methods of Teaching English in India, Agra: Lakshmi Naryan Aggrawal, P. 66.
- Sheen, R. (2003), Focus on Form: A Myth in the Making? ELT Journal, 57 (3).
- Shehadeh, A. (2005), Task-Based Language Learning and Teaching: Theories and Applications, in, Edwards, C. & Willis, J. (eds), (2005).
- Shekan, P. (1989), Individual Differences in Second Language Learning, London: Edward Arnold.

- Shiffrin, R. M. & Schneider, W. (1977), Controlled and Automatic Human Information processing: II, Perceptual Learning, Automatic Attending and a General Theory, *Psychological Review*, 84.
- Shohamy, E. (2004), The Power of Tests Over Teachers: The Power of Teachers over Tests, in, Tedick, D. J. (Ed.), *Second Language Teacher Education: International Perspectives*, Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.
- Shone, Jeffrey (2002), Effects of Whole Language Instruction in Reading Comprehension Scores of First Grade Students. Retrieved from: <http://rdw.rowan.edu/cgi/viewcontent.cgi?article=2511&context=etd>
- Shroff, R. S. (1990), *Teaching English in India*, Oxford: OUP of India.
- Shuja, A. & Bameri, M. (2012), "Authentic Materials: Help or Hindrance to Beginners?", *Proceedings, CICE-2012*, University of Guelph, Ontario, Canada, 2012.
- Singh, Y. K. (2005), *Teaching of English*, APH Publishing Corporation, Delhi.
- Skehan, P. (1996a), A Framework for the Implementation of Task-based Instruction, *Applied Linguistics*, 17 (1).
- Skehan, P. (1996b), Second Language Acquisition Research and Task-based Instruction, in, Willis, J. & Dave, Willis (eds.), *Challenge and Change in Language Teaching*, Oxford: Heinemann.
- Skehan, P. (1998a), *A Cognitive Approach to Language Learning*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Skehan, P. (1998b), Task-based Instruction, Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 18.
- Skehan, P. (2002), A Marginal Role for Tasks, ELT Journal, 56 (3).
- Skinner, B. F. & Burrhus, F. (1957), 'Verbal Behavior', Copley Publishing Group.
- Slaughter, H. (1988), Indirect and Direct Teaching in a Whole Language Program, The Reading Teacher, 42.
- Smith, P. G. (1991), A Practical Guide to Whole Language in the Intermediate Classroom, Contemporary Education, 62.
- Snow, M. A. (2014), Content-based and Immersion Models of Second/Foreign Language Teaching, in, Celce-Murcia M., Brinton D. M. & Snow M. A. (eds), Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language (4th. Ed.) Boston, MA: National Geographic Learning/ Heinle Cengage Learning.
- Soto, M. A. (2014), Post-method Pedagogy: Towards Enhanced Context Situated Teaching Methodologies: English Language Teaching in the Post-methods Era, Selected Papers from the 39th. FAAPI Conference.
- Spolsky, B. (1966), "A Psycholinguistic Critique of Programmed Foreign Language Instruction", IRAL, 4.
- Spruman, Cardyn V. (1992), Whole Language Questions: what Teachers are Asking, Contemporary Education, Vol. 64, No.1, 19.
- Sricharoen, A. (2005), Use of the Natural Approach to Develop English Listening-Speaking Abilities and Word Recognition of Preparatory Level Learners, M. Ed. Dissertation,

- Chiangmai University, 2005, Retrieved June 01, 2011, from: http://ss.lib.cmu.ac.th/digital_collection/etheses/detail.php?id=14171&word=Use%20of%20the%20natural%20approach.
- Stanovich, K. E. & Stanovich, P. J. (1999), How Research Might Inform the Debate about Early Reading Acquisition, in, Oakhill, J. & Beard, R. (Eds.), Reading Development and the Teaching of Reading: A Psychological Perspective, Oxford: Blackwell Publishers.
- Stahl, S. & Miller, P. (1989), Whole Language and Language Experience Approaches for Beginning Reading: A Quantitative Research Synthesis, Review of Educational Research, 59(1).
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3102/00346543059001087>
- Stark, P. P. (2005), Integrating Task-Based Learning into a Business English Programme, in, Edwards, C. & Willis, J. (eds.), (2005), Teachers Exploring Tasks in English Language Teaching, (1st ed.) Houndmills: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Stern, H. H. (1983), Fundamental Concepts of Language Teaching, OUP.
- Stern, H. H. (1985), Review of Methods that Work: A Smorgasbord of Ideas for Language Teachers, Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 7, (2).
- Stern, H. H. (1992), Issues and Options in Language Teaching, Oxford: Oxford University Press.

- Stryker, B. S. & Leaver, B. L. (1997), *Content-based Instruction in Foreign Language Education*, (Eds.), Washington, D.C.: Georgetown University Press.
- Swan, M. (1985), "A Critical Look at the Communicative Approach", in *ELT Journal*, 39, (1 & 2).
- Swan, M. (2005), *Legislation by Hypothesis: The Case of Task-Based Instruction*. *Applied Linguist* 26 (3).
- Swain, M. & Johnson, R. K. (1997), *Immersion Education: A Category within Bilingual Education*, in, Swain, M. & Johnson, R. K. (eds), *Immersion Education: International Perspective*, NY: CUP.
- Sweet, H. (1899-1964), *The Practical Study of Languages: A Guide for Teachers and Learners*, London: J. M. Dent & Co.
- Tan, Xiugui (1996), *Remarks on the Whole Language*, *Foreign Language World Journal*, No. 6, 40.
- Tang, Lixing (1998), *The Theory and Application of the "Whole Language"*, *The English Teaching and Researching*, in, *Junior Middle School Journal*, Vol. 10, No. 1, 2.
- Terrell, T. D., (1977), "A Natural Approach to Second Language Acquisition and Learning", in, *The Modern Language Journal*, 61, (7).
- Terrell, T. D. (1982), *The Natural Approach: An Update*, in, *The Modern Language Journal*, 66, (2).
- Tickoo, M. L. (2003), *Teaching and Learning English: A Source Book for Teachers and Teacher-Trainers*, Orient Longman Private Limited, New Delhi.

- Titone, R. (1968), *Teaching Foreign Languages: An Historical Sketch*, Washington, Georgetown University Press.
- Thirumalai, M. S. (2002), *Language in India: Strength for Today and Bright Hope for Tomorrow*, in <http://www/language-india.com/april2002/tesol/book.html>.
- Thompson, H. G. & Wyatt, M. S. H. (1964), *Teaching of English in India*, Oxford: Oxford University Press, New Delhi, India, 1937.
- Thornbury, S. (1996), *Teachers Research Teacher Talk*, *ELT Journal*, Vol. 50, Issue 4.
- Thornbury, S. (2002), *How to Teach Vocabulary*, Longman, London.
- Thornbury, S. (2004), *How to Teach Grammar*, Malaysia: Pearson Education Limited.
- Trenholm, D. S. (1992), *What is the Effect of Traditional Language Teaching on Learning Sentence Structure?*
<http://www.eric.ed.gov/PDFS/ED>
- Valdman, A. (1904), "Forward Self-instruction in Foreign Language Learning", *IRAL*, 2:1.
- Vallabi, J. E. (2011), *Teaching of English: Principal and Practices*, Hyderabad: Neelkamal Publication.
- Van, den Branden K. (2006), *Task based Education: From Theory to Practice*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Vergheese, C. Paul (1989), *Teaching English as a Second Language*, Delhi: Sterling Publishers Pvt. Ltd.
- Vildomec, V. (1963), *Multilingualism*, Leyden: A. W. Sythoff.
- Vygotsky, L. S. (1978), *Mind in Society*, Cambridge, MA:

- Harvard University Press.
- Zeichner, K. M. & Liston, D. P. (1996), *Reflective teaching: An introduction*, New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Mahwah.
- Wali, N. H. (2009), *Eclecticism and Language Learning*, Al-Fatih Journal, No.: 39, Diyala University College of Basic Education.
- Wallace, M. J. (1998), *Action Research for Language Teachers*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wang, Yiming (2004), *On the Application of the TPR to English Teaching in Primary School*, in, *Journal of Foreign Languages of Shandong Normal University*, Vol. 4.
- Watson, D. (1989), *Defining and Describing Whole Language*, *Elementary School Journal*, 90, PP. 129-142.
- Watts, E. (2003), "Cooking a Snook at the Communicative Approach", *IATEFL Issues*, issue 176, December 2003 – January 2004, retrieved on 23-10-2018, from: <https://associates.iatefl.org/pages/materials/voicespdf/ltskills5.pdf>
- Weaver, C. (1988), *Reading Process & Practice: From Socio-Psycholinguistics to Whole Language*, Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.
- Webster, N. (1943), *New International Dictionary*, Oxford: OUP.
- Weidemann, A. (2001), *The Old and the New: Reconsidering Eclecticism in Language Teaching*, *Linguam*, 17, (1), doi.org/10.5785/17-1-131.

- Weir, R. (1990), Philosophy, Cultural Beliefs and Literacy, *Interchange*, 21, (4).
- Wesche, M. B. (1993), Discipline-based Approach to Language Study: Research Issue and Outcome, in Krueger, M. & Ryan, F., (eds), *Language and Content: Discipline and Content-based Approaches to Language Study*, Lexington, MA: D. C. Heath.
- Widdowson, Allen (1975), *ESL in Theory and Practice, English for Academic Purposes*, ETIC Occasional Papers.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1979), *Explanations in Applied Linguistics*, OUP.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1990), *Aspects of Language Teaching*, Oxford, University Press.
- Widdowson, H. G. (1998), *Teaching Language as Communication*, Oxford: OUP.
- Widdowson, H. G. (2003), "Expert beyond experience": Notes on the Appropriate Use of Theory in practice, in, Newby, D. (ed.), *Mediating between Theory and Practice in the Context of Different Learning Cultures and Languages*, Strasbourg/Graz: Council of Europe Press.
- William, E. Bull (1965), *Spanish for Teachers: Applied Linguistics*.
- Willis, J. (1996), *A Framework for Task-Based Learning*, London: Longman.
- Willis, J. (2004), *Perspectives on Task-Based Instruction: Understanding our Practices, Acknowledging Different Practices*, in, Leaver, B. L. & Willis, J. (eds.), *Task-Based Instruction in Foreign Language Education: Practices and*

- Programs, Washington D.C: Georgetown University Press.
- Willis, D. & Willis, J. (2001), Task-Based Language Learning, in Carter, R. & Nunan, D. (ed.), *The Cambridge Guide to Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Wilkins, D. A. (1972), *Linguistics in Language Teaching*, Oxford: Arnold.
- Wilkins, D. A. (1976), *Notional Syllabuses*, Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Winitz, H. & Reeds, J. (1973), 'Rapid Acquisition of a Foreign Language German by the Avoidance of Speaking' *IRAL*, 1114:
- Wringe, C. (1976), *Development in Modern Language Teaching*, Open Books Publishing Ltd., Shaftesbury Avenue, London.
- Wright, W. E. (2015), *Foundation for teaching English language learners* (2nd. ed.), Philadelphia, PA: Carlon.
- Xiao, Long-Fu, (2001), *Teaching English Cultural Background: Introducing the Target Culture into the Chinese Secondary School English Classes*, Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Tampere, retrieved from, <https://web.uri.edu/iaics/files/Xizhen-QIN.pdf>
- Yalden, J. (1983), *The Communicative Syllabus: Evolution, Design and Implementation*, Oxford: Pergamon Press.
- Yalden, J. (1987), *Principles of Course Design for Language Teaching*, Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

- Yardi, V. V. (1994), *Teaching English in India Today*, Aurangabad: Saket Prakashan.
- Yoo, S. Y. (1996), *A Study of how Early Childhood Teachers' Beliefs reflect their Use of the Whole Language and Traditional Approaches: A Quantitative and Qualitative Analysis*, Ann Arbor, MI: A Bell & Howell Company.



About the Author:

Dr. Abdelrahman Mohammed Yeddi Elnoor is a prominent writer, academician and critic. He was born in Elgolid district; North Sudan on 1st of June 1964. He got his early education in Khalwa; a form of Islamic education, then, he completed the primary and intermediate schools in Elgolid itself. Then, he completed the secondary school in Khartoum. Then, he joined Omdurman Islamic University in 1986. His aim was to study English language and literature, but against his will, he had been admitted in History Dept., therefore, after completing the first year in that Dept., he departed to India to study English language and literature. He completed the Bachelor of Arts; (English as a major paper), in 1990 from Pune University. Then, he completed Master of Arts; (English Literature as a major paper), in 1993 from Pune University. Then, he completed Ph.D. of English; (ELT), from BAMU in Aurangabad in 1997.

Dr. Abdelrahman Mohammed Yeddi Elnoor worked in the field of translation in the Persian Gulf. He has climbed the job grades till he became Translation Expert. Moreover, after his return to Sudan, he worked as Associate Professor in the College of Languages and Translation in Sudan University of Science and Technology till he was dismissed because he wrote and published an article title: “Marketing Academic Degrees in Sudanese Universities: A Testimony for Allah” which exposed the crooked academic ways of the corrupt stakeholders.

After a prolonged and deep reading, studying and researching in the references and books of those who call themselves Sunnis, he shifted from the so-called Sunna Creed, to Shiism; allegiance to the Progeny PBU them; the

true followers of Quran and the Sunna of the Prophet PBUH and his progeny. He has many written works which explain various aspects of this shift and no Mullah could respond, scientifically, to what he has written in this regard.

He is a proficient writer, deep-sighted academician and sarcastic as well as stinging critic. He has written many books and articles. Some of them are in English and some of them are in Arabic. They cover aspects such as education, ELT, literary criticism, history, religion, politics, short stories and other intellectual issues. Many of them are available in the libraries of more than 160 universities all over the world and also in many international national libraries such as Congress Library in the US and Russian National Library. They are also available online on many websites include the author's own website: <https://yeddibooks.com>. The following are lists which include some of his works:

Books:

1. Tayeb Salih's Season of Migration to the North: An Ideo-Literary Evaluation, (English Version)
2. Tayeb Salih's Season of Migration to the North: An Ideo-Literary Evaluation, (Arabic Version)
3. Sudanese Educational Issues: An Ideological Perspective. (In English)
4. History of English Language in Sudan: A Critical Re-reading. (In English)
5. Teaching English in Sudan: A Practical Approach. (In English)
6. The New Muslim's Book of the Fundamentals of Islam: Their Significance. (In English)
7. Intellectual scientific and academic miscellany. (English/Arabic)
8. Basics of English Grammar for Sudanese Students
9. Grammar of English: Explanation, Rule and Drills
10. History of Educational Experiments in Sudan: A Brief Account. (In English)
11. Value-based Stories. (In Arabic)
12. From Darkness of Saqeefa's Astray to the Guidance Light of the Ship. (Arabic Version)
13. From Darkness of Saqeefa's Astray to the Guidance Light of the

- Ship. (English Version)
14. The Reign of the So-called Islamists: The Reign of the Harmful Catastrophe. (In Arabic)
 15. Language Teaching: From Method to Post-method: A Sourcebook. (In English)
 16. Mahmood Mohammed Taha: A Contemporary Falta (Sudden Recklessness) from Saqeefa Falta. (In Arabic)
 17. Hasan Abdullah Al Turabi: Hashawi and Salafi Understanding and Holami Compositions. (In Arabic)
 18. O Sudanese! Know Your True Enemy: Other Articles (In Arabic)
 19. Curriculum in Sudan and the Strategy of Misleading the Young People. (In Arabic)
 20. No Stoning for an Adulterous and No Capital Punishment for an Apostate. (In Arabic)
 21. English as an International Language: Skills to be Given Priority in FLT Situation. (In English)
 22. Disgrace in Departments of English and Colleges of Education in Sudanese Universities: With Special Reference to SUST and Alneelain Universities. (In English)
 23. A Critical Sail into Ali A. M. Yeddi's Novel: The Legendary Whale. (In English)
 24. Mohammed Sayyed Haj: A Story-Teller, Croaks with Distortion, Hides Truth and Ruminates Lie and Falsification. (In Arabic)
 25. A Critical Literary Glance into Ali A. M. Yeddi's Novel: A Racial Madness against Innocence. (In English)

Articles:

1. "Aims of Education in Sudan: An Ideological Overview", in, 'Educational Insight', Quarterly, Vol. 1, No. 2, Dec. 1997. (In English)
2. "Sudan: A Model of Real Independence", in, Radiance Viewsweekly, 15-21 Feb., 1998. (In English)
3. "Mother Tongue as Medium", in, Radiance Viewsweekly, 11-17 April, 1999. (In English)
4. "Foreign Transmission and the Allegiance of Human Intellect", in Radiance Viewsweekly, 3-9 Jan., 1999. (In English)
5. "Language Policy in Sudan", in, RELC Journal, Vol. 32, No. 2, Dec. 2001. (In English)

6. A Story of Confrontation between the Artistic Classifications
Dept. and Dr. Abdelrahman Mohammed Yeddi, [Al Rakoba Website](#). (In Arabic)
7. Marketing the Scientific Degrees in Sudanese Universities: A
Testimony for Allah, [Al Rakoba Website](#). (In Arabic)
8. Basic School Books are Full of Lies, False and Misleading: Oh
Parents, Pay Attention! (In Arabic)
9. The Aftermath of the Fall: Pseudo-Islamist Brothers is a Zio-
American Organization, Al Rakoba, 10th. October, 2020. (In
Arabic)
10. The Sora of Frowned and the Frowner is Othman. (In Arabic)
11. O, who Parys Taraweeh- Are you a Donkey? (Arabic/English)
12. “Then Complete Fasting until the Night” The Night and not
Moqrib is the Legal Time for Iftar. (Arabic/English)
13. Ablution is Two Washing and Two Rubbing. (In Arabic)
14. ‘9-TheLong’ The Thieves are in the Palace Since 1956. (In
Arabic)
15. The Tempest About the Renaissance Dam and the Pharaonic
Agenda behind It. (In Arabic)
16. The Falsehood of A’shora Fasting and Distracting Mules from
Truth. (In Arabic)
17. How Do We Not Be Racial and We....? (In Arabic)
18. How Do We Not Kill Each Other and Rob Each Other While
We are Loyal to Criminals and Pray for Them? (In Arabic)

Please send your feedback and correspondences to the
author through the e-mail: dryeddi12@gmail.com

[Or WhatsApp: 0097455093898](#)

Website: <https://yeddibooks.com>

Some of the Works of Dr. Abdelrahman Yeddi

